

# The Social Studies

Volume XXVIII, Number 8

*Continuing The Historical Outlook*

December, 1937

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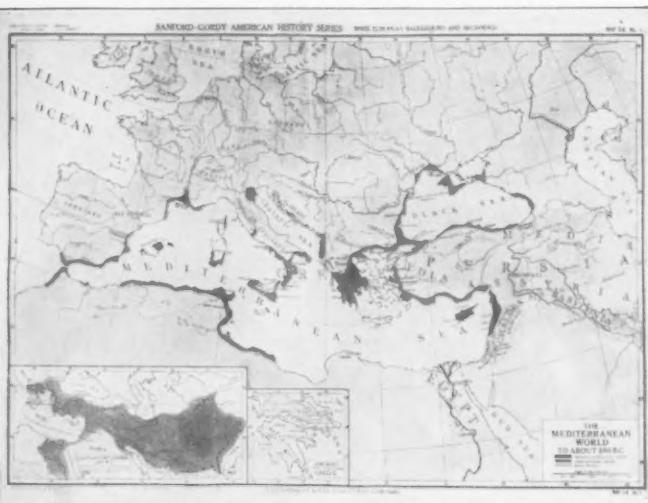
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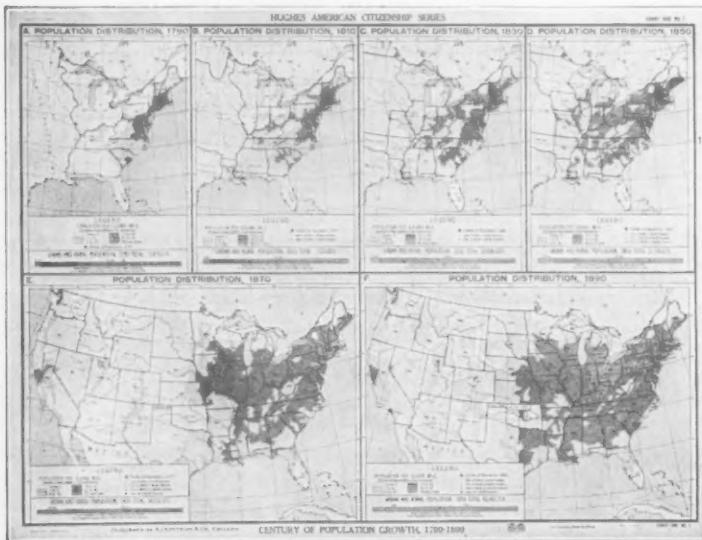
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# The Social Studies

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VOLUME XXVIII, NUMBER 8

DECEMBER, 1937

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## Do Public School Names Have Any Educational Significance?

K. OTTO LOGAN

*Senior High School, Alexandria, Minnesota*

On a typical school day thousands of pupils pass through doorways over which are carved such names as "John Marshall High School" and "Washington Grammar School." Are these pupils conscious of the presence of the names above the doorways? The practice of naming schools is widespread. In fact, it is almost a necessity in cities large enough to have more than one school of a given kind. Do the names have any educational significance?

Almost no literature on the subject of school names is to be found. There are a number of studies on the subject of place-names in foreign countries and in various parts and states of this country. The origin and meaning of the names of countries, states, counties, cities, and even streets or avenues have been studied and described. Under the leadership of Dr. Robert Ramsay of the English Department of the University of Missouri, a number of students have written master's theses on the origin and significance of place-names. Some of these studies pay attention to school names in certain counties of central Missouri. Though the studies are devoted mostly to the philology of school names, they do not ignore the geographical, historical, and social factors that affect the names. Dealing more specifically with school names are two brief articles on the origin and incidents that fixed the school names of Seattle, Washington. These two articles were written by Reuben W. Jones and were published in the *Seattle Educational Bulletin*

of 1936. The literature on the subject of school names is, therefore, of limited extent and wholly inadequate as a basis for answering the question posited in the title of this article.

In seeking to answer the question concerning the educational significance of school names, the writer was forced to procure his information directly from the schools. He secured data concerning 2040 school names.<sup>1</sup> The data became significant only after they had yielded information concerning a number of subsidiary questions. What are the most frequent school names? Are they named for individuals? How are the names distributed among educators, scientists, writers, and local, state, and national figures? Do the schools honor in some discernible way the names which they have chosen? In brief, do the school names have any educational significance?

Thirty-seven states are represented among the 2040 school names that were secured in response to a direct request. Of this number 889 were locational names (East, West, Central), street names (avenue, highway), or community names (district, sections, etc.). In addition to locational names, there were a few that indicated scope such as: Technical, Commercial, Girls' High School. These locational and scope names can obviously have no significance beyond what their names imply. They are therefore dropped.

After eliminating the locational and scope names there remained 1118 names of schools that might

have some educational significance. These names were classified into categories as shown in the list below. The table indicates the percentage of the 1118 names classified under each category.

Categories	Percentages
1. Political Heroes . . . . .	35.4
2. Writers . . . . .	17.0
3. Educational Heroes . . . . .	12.6
4. Military Heroes . . . . .	10.6
5. Local Heroes . . . . .	7.5
6. Scientists or Inventors . . . . .	5.9
7. Miscellaneous . . . . .	10.8

The great popularity of political heroes apparently reflects a very high degree of civic-mindedness, and the ranking of writers reflects a high degree of appreciation for nationally-known American poets, essayists, and novelists. Over two-thirds of the educational heroes are those of local significance, superintendents, principals, members of boards of education, and various promoters of education. Under military heroes, some soldier or patriot from practically every American conflict is represented. The category of local heroes refers to local leaders not classified under any of the other groups. They include men who are known for their local contributions rather than for their prominence in a special field. Among the scientists are ornithologists, inventors, naturalists, geologists, etc. The miscellaneous category reflects an appreciation in school names of philanthropists, business leaders, explorers, artists, clergymen, and Indian culture.

Since the request for school names was sent to the largest city in each state, the replies from the thirty-seven states represent thirty-seven school systems ranging in size from eight schools in Reno to several hundred in Chicago. Very seldom would a school system, whether large or small, use the same name more than once. Consequently, in order to ascertain the popularity of any one person, it must be based upon the thirty-seven school systems which use the name rather than upon the 2040 schools. The popularity of various school names is indicated in the table.

These school names reveal the great emphasis placed upon national heroes. In fact, a further classification of political leaders shows that about 84 per cent are national heroes, 13 per cent state heroes, and only 3 per cent of local fame. If we wish to encourage better local leaders and stress the importance of local government in our community, we certainly fail to do so through the selection of school names. It is unfortunate that we overlook the opportunity of choosing locally significant names. For instance, a school may be named for a person who has contributed definitely to the building of his community, or for a local man who has achieved fame. Either of these as the basis for the selection of school names would mean a tribute of respect, a source of pride

*The fractions below indicate the portion of the thirty-seven school systems which use the name.*

School Names	
1. Lincoln . . . . .	two-thirds.
2. Franklin . . . . .	one-half plus.
3. Washington . . . . .	about one-half.
4. Jefferson . . . . .	one-third to one-half.
Roosevelt Longfellow McKinley Garfield Grant Emerson	
5. Jackson . . . . .	one-fourth to one-third.
Hawthorne Whittier Webster Hamilton Marshall Lowell Horace Mann Irving Field Cleveland Monroe Edison	

to the community, and a useful symbol to the youth of the school. On the other hand, "Washington" as a school name would seldom consciously be associated with the first President of the United States, and certainly the name adds nothing to his fame.

A more vital aspect of the question of school names is the attention paid to them and their significance for the community. In general it may be said that it is the exception rather than the rule to find any school system honoring or utilizing educationally its school name. Occasionally, a few clubs or publications use the name in an educational sense, but an analysis of thirty-seven replies received from all sections of the United States in response to the question, indicates that in only one system is there a definite attempt at making the school names educationally significant in the community. Superintendent of Schools C. B. Glenn, of Birmingham, Alabama, states: "The Board of Education has felt it worth while to place emphasis on the naming of our schools, believing that the significance of the name may be made effective in the training of children. During the past year we had each school work up its own school history. Copies have been filed in this office. In a number of schools special days during the school year are set apart to commemorate the establishing and naming of the school."

Other schools referred to such policies as: "From time to time the attention of the pupils is called to the name of the school and the reason therefor."—"Persons of national repute are given recognition as occasions present themselves."—"A half-holiday on Lee's birthday in the Robert E. Lee School."—"It is in the discretion of the principals of the schools, in the case of naming of new schools, to take special cognizance of the name." Such policies are too formal, indefinite, or incidental in nature to be effective

in the community. Certainly they cannot be thought of as promoting any great educational influence.

We hear a great deal about the local nature of education, about the emphasis which should be placed upon local support, and about the desirability of creating community interest in education. We hear of the importance of the school building and how its style of architecture promotes local pride. The factors that might tend to combine the school and the community seem in most cases to be forgotten in the naming of schools.

The importance of the school name may be made effective in the community. The more appropriate the school name the more effective it might become educationally. The teachers who are informed as to the origin of a school name and who have some appreciation of its significance might be able to utilize it as an effective device in securing the interest and attention of the pupils. If the school is named for a political hero, the civics teacher might incorporate experiences, statements, or principles of the person for whom the school was named to make the

subject of government real and vital to the pupil. The school name and its historical setting might be used to promote pride in local achievements. The character of the person for whom the school is named might be used as an inspiration and guide for the youth and the community it serves; in short, a school name might be made educationally significant.

After compiling data concerning the names of schools, the evidence at present shows that most school names are chosen merely because a name is necessary. It is also evident that the names chosen reveal social rather than educational significance. The fact that only one school system out of thirty-seven seriously attempts to make its school names effective in the training of the pupils is evidence to show that at the present time school names have no educational significance. Will a future survey reveal any change in the situation? The answer is in the hands of the social studies teachers of the United States.

<sup>1</sup> The writer is indebted to Professor Edgar B. Wesley of the University of Minnesota for having suggested this study and for giving it his critical attention.

## The School Journey Motivating and Suggesting Project-Problems

ROBERT B. NIXON

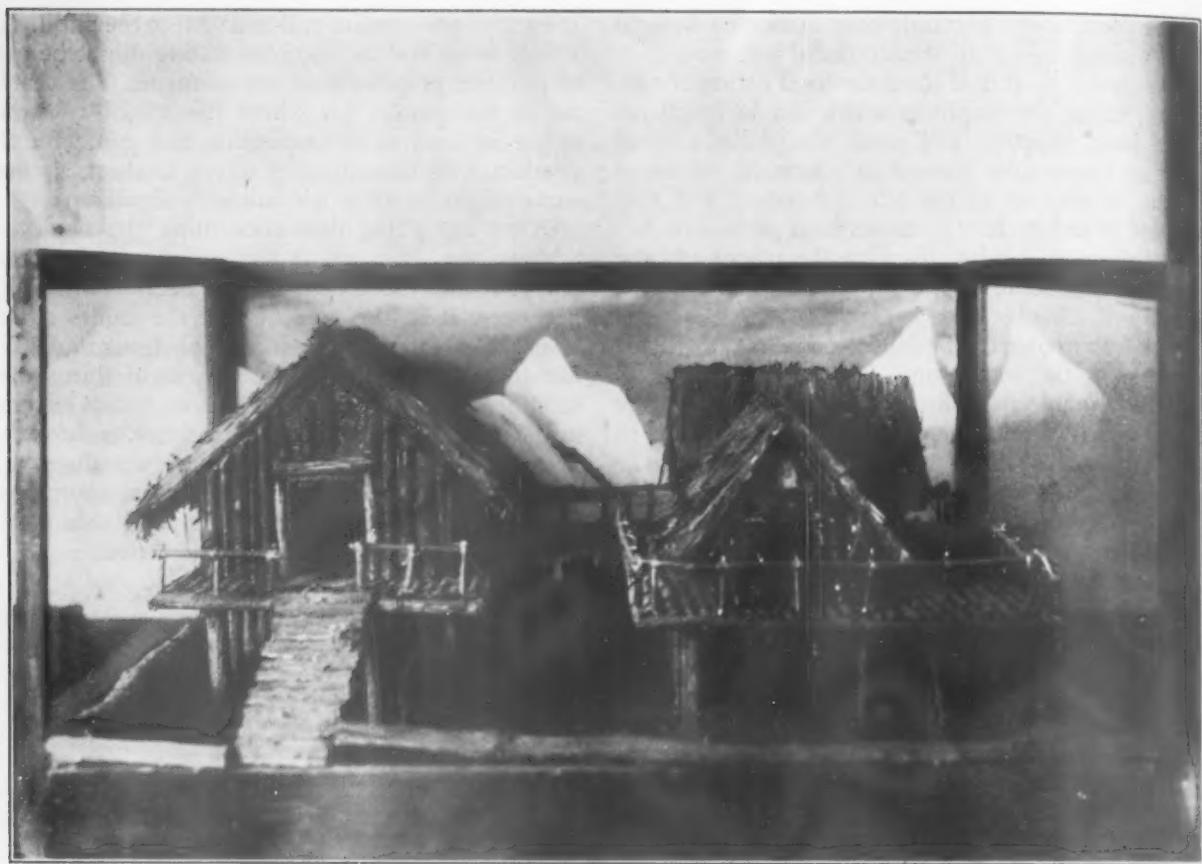
*Radnor High School, Wayne, Pennsylvania*

In conjunction with the teaching of economic geography at Radnor High School, it is customary to take pupils on a field trip to the Commercial Museum in Philadelphia. One year a wide-awake tenth grade girl saw in the museum the splendid map of the world, on which is placed postage stamps of all the principal countries. She asked the teacher why Radnor could not have such a map.

Just at that time we needed many new maps. The teacher thought, "Why not allow the pupils to make many maps?" They did. Class time was allotted to the project. Some time after school, and even some evenings, had to be spent in order to finish the maps in time for the close of the school year. The project was carried to completion by 10th, 11th, and 12th year pupils electing economic geography. The school furnished large sections of "beaver board" and the necessary paints, brushes and inks. There was co-operation in this respect from the art department, but the work was done by the pupils without the actual assistance of the art teacher. This involved

planning maps for size, blocking out areas on large sheets of paper, transferring the finished drawing to the beaver board, painting, and research necessary to place the proper products in the right place. Cities were not labeled, but a thumb tack placed in the proper spot or location. This was to allow the use of maps in tests for locations in recitation periods.

Among the finished maps suitable for class use appeared a world map with postage stamps on it representative of the larger and more important countries. The persons making the map sorted out thousands before finding the best. Other pupil groups made a map of Europe, with products or pictures of products attached; a map of Asia, one of Africa and another of South America. One of the committees had decided upon a map of North America, but it failed to satisfy geographic standards of accuracy because of one temperamental student of "artistic" nature who decided to shape it as his mood for the day or week directed. The teacher allowed the map to be finished, but never used it.



MODEL OF LAKE DWELLINGS

Another time we visited the University of Pennsylvania Museum. The attendants of the museum have always proved more than helpful, and on this particular trip the pupils were looking for suggestions for term projects. At Radnor High School we try to have term projects which can be used in teaching others. The children like this idea for their names are placed on each project, and when we use their work we always announce who made it in order to encourage others.

As a result of this school journey Radnor now possesses, due to the generosity of museum authorities who even allowed museum models to be borrowed by our school for correct study of details, a lake dwellers' model, a model of a Pueblo House, and also models of Navaho Hogan, and Plains Indian dwellings. In addition we completed an original model (taken from a picture) of a portion of the Great Wall of China, two models of Fujiama (one made as a stage setting was constructed, and another as a three dimension model). One group made a copy of the geological formations of an oil field with derricks, etc., on the top. Another group made a map of our sister Republic of Mexico and its products. This same year we saw an Andean Indian village take form; a stage setting diagram of the industrial

development of Great Britain, France and Germany; terraced fields of Philippine rice growers; a large illustrated "map" of an English Manor and the complete group of craft guild shields suggested by the cover of a Fisher-Body contest booklet. Our shields are about one foot in dimension each way, and are painted in the colors described in the books of heraldry found in the Philadelphia libraries. Pupils went to the library to obtain their correct colors.

We summarize the value of the field trip or school journey as a mode of motivating pupil projects in geography as follows:

*Independent Observation*

If the teacher will outline a trip or journey and tell pupils what might be seen on such a journey, yet not tell the pupil just where to find each thing, the pupil will see many things otherwise overlooked. The "World Postage Stamp Map" was not included in the trip but it thrilled one youngster and she, because of her own enthusiasm, motivated all the projects for that year.

*Originality*

The teacher must not limit a selection of projects to particular topics. Our models were suggested by the pupils themselves, after seeing the originals at



MAP SHOWING POSTAGE STAMPS AND DRUGS OF THE PRINCIPAL COUNTRIES OF THE WORLD

the University Museum. The groups who made the Andean village, Fujiama models, the Great Wall of China, and the industrial development of the three Great European industrial powers wanted to do something different, as did a boy who alone constructed a working model of a hand loom, even to weaving a piece of cloth upon it.

#### *The Teacher as a Guide*

The teacher must always be in the background as a helper and adviser. He must *show* how to pour plaster, even teach the application of paint, and suggest ways to overcome difficulties in making natural looking vegetation from such materials as sawdust dyed green, etc. It is *not* the duty of the teacher to *make* the project for the pupil. The project is the pupil's problem resulting from his school journey. Even the less gifted find some particular part of the project in which they are most skilled. For example, one girl, now studying art, made all the little figures which appeared in the original models when completed.

#### *Human Relations*

We allow the pupils to select leaders of the groups responsible for each project, after pupils have vol-

unteered to make particular projects. It is interesting to note how the pupils will often find they have made a mistake in the selection of a leader and how quickly another steps into his "shoes" when the group has deposed the incompetent leader. It is also astounding to note how a group of workers will complain to the "chief" (teacher) when a worker shirks a task, and take the necessary steps to make the one hindering their progress produce the required work.

#### *Use of Other Subjects*

Pupils soon learn there is a use for skills and knowledge gained in use of shop materials, art, library references and museum, often in a quite bookish subject such as geography.

#### *Pride in Community Contributions*

Pupils feel, after such an experience, resulting from a school journey that they have made the journey with a purpose, and not merely as a lark. Many pupils come back after graduation and ask if we still have their models and are using them. They have pride in their contributions to their school, contributions which are often beyond the average purse of even the largest school systems.

# Parties in Power in United States History

FRANK HARMON GARVER

*University of Southern California, Los Angeles*

Presidential campaigns and elections have a great educational value. The campaigns cause American citizens to think intensively about the Constitution and the general principles of our government. They promote discussion of American ideals and traditions and focus attention upon the actual workings of our political machinery. They call attention to the Presidency, the most powerful elective official in the world. They bring into prominence the fact that ours is a government by political parties. The winning party in a presidential election takes over the government of the country for the next four years. Every election, like that of 1936, either continues a party in power or turns it out in favor of a rival. It is the purpose of this paper to make a study of the tenure of political parties in United States history.

Political parties in the United States since 1791 may be divided into three classes. In the first class come those parties which have been strong enough to elect Presidents. They may be referred to as the major parties. In this group fall the Federalist, Democratic, Whig and Republican parties. In the second class may be placed those parties strong enough to carry states, and whose candidates, therefore, received electoral votes but never enough to enable them to win the Presidency. The chief parties of the second group, together with the years in which they received electoral votes were: the Anti-Masonic, 1832; the American or Know-Nothing, 1856; the Constitutional Union, 1860; The Populist, 1892 and 1896; the Progressive, 1912 and the Independent Progressive, 1924. In the third class come all of those minor parties which nominated candidates for the office of President but which were not strong enough to carry a single state and, therefore, never received electoral votes. The Free Soil, Prohibition and Socialist parties are well known examples.

Our first real political parties originated in Washington's first administration, about 1791-1792. The earlier divisions of the American people into Whigs and Tories, Patriots and Loyalists, Federalists and Anti-Federalists are passed by because they were not true political parties in the modern sense, and arose before the national period, to which this study is

limited, began. The Federalist and Anti-Federalist parties of 1787-1789 were divided on the question of ratifying the Constitution. Once this event was achieved, these parties or factions ceased to exist.

The first true parties during the national period of our history were the second Federalist and the Democratic Republican parties, founded respectively by Hamilton and Jefferson. The second Federalist party was not the same in personnel as the first party by that name. Nor was the membership of the Democratic Republican party the same as that of the Anti-Federalist group. I shall refer to the second Federalist party simply as the Federalist party. I am well aware that Jefferson preferred to call his party by the name "Republican" although its official title was, and still is, Democratic Republican. In the time of Jackson the name Republican was dropped and the party of Jefferson continued as the Democratic party. All authorities agree that the party established by Jefferson and Madison is identical with the Democratic party of today (1937). For this reason I shall apply the name "Democratic" to it all through the national period. This avoids any possibility of confusing the so-called "Republican" party of Jefferson with the Republican party of today.

In speaking of the four major parties as the parties in power in our history, I have taken as my criterion their ability to elect Presidents. For every presidential election won each party has been credited with four years in power. The possible loss of Senate or House, or both, at the mid-term election has been ignored. The fact that some Presidents have died in office, and the Vice Presidents succeeding to power have seemed to abandon the principles of the party that chose them—Tyler and Johnson for example—has also been ignored. The party which elected the President was entitled to the office of chief executive for four years and four years of power have, therefore, been accorded to it.

In order that the reader may visualize the facts under discussion a list of the administrations is given. In the table emphasis is placed upon the administration and the tenure of parties rather than upon the terms of the Presidents.

## ADMINISTRATIONS OF THE PRESIDENTS

Administration	President	Dates	Party in Power
1.	Washington	1789-1793	Federalist
2.	Washington	1793-1797	Federalist
3.	John Adams	1797-1801	Federalist
4.	Jefferson	1801-1805	Democratic
5.	Jefferson	1805-1809	Democratic
6.	Madison	1809-1813	Democratic
7.	Madison	1813-1817	Democratic
8.	Monroe	1817-1821	Democratic
9.	Monroe	1821-1825	Democratic
10.	J. Q. Adams	1825-1829	Democratic
11.	Jackson	1829-1833	Democratic
12.	Jackson	1833-1837	Democratic
13.	Van Buren	1837-1841	Democratic
14.	Harrison and Tyler	1841-1845	Whig
15.	Polk	1845-1849	Democratic
16.	Taylor and Fillmore	1849-1853	Whig
17.	Pierce	1853-1857	Democratic
18.	Buchanan	1857-1861	Democratic
19.	Lincoln	1861-1865	Republican
20.	Lincoln and Johnson	1865-1869	Republican
21.	Grant	1869-1873	Republican
22.	Grant	1873-1877	Republican
23.	Hayes	1877-1881	Republican
24.	Garfield and Arthur	1881-1885	Republican
25.	Cleveland	1885-1889	Democratic
26.	Benjamin Harrison	1889-1893	Republican
27.	Cleveland	1893-1897	Democratic
28.	McKinley	1897-1901	Republican
29.	McKinley and Roosevelt	1901-1905	Republican
30.	Theodore Roosevelt	1905-1909	Republican
31.	Taft	1909-1913	Republican
32.	Wilson	1913-1917	Democratic
33.	Wilson	1917-1921	Democratic
34.	Harding and Coolidge	1921-1925	Republican
35.	Coolidge	1925-1929	Republican
36.	Hoover	1929-1933	Republican
37.	Franklin D. Roosevelt	1933-1937	Democratic
38.	Franklin D. Roosevelt	1937-	Democratic

This table of administrations shows the exact length of time each major party has been in power. To date (December, 1937) there have been 38 presidential elections. The 38th administration began in January, 1937. Some Presidents have had one administration, for example John Adams. Some like Washington have had two. Sometimes two Presidents have had to share one administration between them. Such was the fate of Harrison and Tyler. Lincoln had one administration and shared another with Johnson. The case of McKinley and Theodore Roosevelt is interesting. McKinley served one administration alone; he and Roosevelt shared one between them; then Roosevelt served one alone.

When Washington was first elected President real political parties did not exist for which reason his first administration has not been credited to any party. At his second election he received the votes of every presidential elector—both Federalist and Democratic. From this fact some might argue that his second administration, from 1793 to 1797, should not be awarded to any one party; but, since the number of Federalist electors as shown by the vote for Vice President exceeded the number of Democratic electors, Washington's second election has been recorded as a victory for the Federalist party. The fair-

ness of this decision is shown when it is recalled that Washington openly affiliated with the Federalists during his second term.

Some may say that it is not correct to list J. Q. Adams, 1825-1829, as a Democratic President. The facts are that he publicly left the Federalists in 1807 and joined the Democratic party. He held office by appointment of Democratic Presidents almost constantly from 1807 to 1825. When chosen President in 1824-1825 he was one of four candidates representing the Democratic party and received only Democratic electoral votes. It matters not that the election was thrown into the House of Representatives and Adams chosen there. The Federalist party nominated no candidates for President and Vice President after 1816. It had practically disappeared from the national field by 1820.

It is true that in the administration of J. Q. Adams the Democratic (Democratic Republican) party split. Thus Adams and Clay came to head a faction called "National Republicans," a faction which changed its name to "Whigs" about 1833. If Adams had been re-elected President in 1828 he would have been credited to the Whig party, on the ground that the National Republicans and the Whigs were really one and the same party, but his one actual term must be counted as Democratic because it was by that party that he was elected. His administration cannot be awarded to the Federalist party which was dead, nor to the Whig party which had not yet come into existence.

Some historians speak of Presidents Tyler and Johnson as Democrats but I have counted the Harrison-Tyler administration as Whig because that party won the election of 1840, choosing Harrison as President and Tyler as Vice President. In like manner the Lincoln-Johnson administration, 1865-1869, has been given to the Republican party, although the election of 1864 was really won by the Union party as the combination of Union Republicans and Democrats called themselves in that year. Although Johnson had been put on the ticket with Lincoln because he was a Union Democrat, and not a Republican, it is probably correct to say that it was Lincoln's strength that won the election. It seems fair to the writer to credit the Lincoln-Johnson administration to the Republican party.

The first party to elect a President was the Federalist party. Not counting Washington's first term, this party was in power eight years, from 1793 to 1801. While it nominated candidates seven times, from 1792 to 1816 inclusive, it won only two elections, those of 1792 and 1796. The two Presidents elected by the party were Washington (second time) and John Adams.

The Federalist party had great leaders and some fine principles. During its period of power it did

much constructive work, but after one defeat in 1800 it never regained power. It is the only one of the four major parties that was unable to stage a comeback after an initial defeat.

The reason for the disappearance of the Federalist party were many. It was divided into factions so antagonistic to each other that they were unable to get together, even when out of power. When in power the party passed several repressive laws which injured it greatly; when out of power its criticisms were entirely negative and destructive, never constructive. During the War of 1812 it played a part little short of treasonable. From 1801 to 1815, it nullified several Federal laws and strongly talked secession upon three different occasions. In spirit it was aristocratic and seemed unable to adjust itself to the great nation-wide movement that set in about 1800 toward democracy. For these and many other reasons the historic Federalist party, which had established the machinery of the Federal government, passed out of existence. Its most prominent leaders were Hamilton, John Adams, Jay, C. C. Pinckney, King, Marshall and T. Pickering.

The party which defeated the Federalists was the Democratic party. It has been in power seventy-two years (to 1937). Its elected Presidents were in office from 1801 to 1861 minus eight years when the Whigs were in, plus the eight years of Cleveland, the eight years of Wilson and the four of Franklin D. Roosevelt.

During its lifetime the Democratic party has nominated candidates thirty-six times, from 1796 to 1936 inclusive and has won nineteen elections. It is the only party which has been continuous throughout our history. The Presidents elected by the Democrats, together with the dates of the elections won, include:

Jefferson	1800, 1804	Polk	1844
Madison	1808, 1812	Pierce	1852
Monroe	1816, 1820	Buchanan	1856
J. Q. Adams	1824	Cleveland	1884, 1892
Jackson	1828, 1832	Wilson	1912, 1916
Van Buren	1836	F. D. Roosevelt	1932, 1936

From this list it can be seen that, although the Democrats have won nineteen elections, only twelve individuals have been elected President by them. This is because so many of them were re-elected, while none has ever died in office.

The third party to win the Presidency in point of time was the Whig. It grew out of a faction that split off from the Democratic Republican party in the administration of J. Q. Adams. At first it was known as the National Republican party but changed its name to Whig about 1833. The leaders of the National Republican faction were J. Q. Adams and Clay. Leaders of the Whig party included Webster, Calhoun,<sup>1</sup> Harrison, Tyler and Fillmore.

The Whig party was in power eight years, from 1841 to 1845 and from 1849 to 1853. It nominated

candidates seven times, from 1828 to 1852 inclusive, and won two elections, those of 1840 and 1848. Both of its successful candidates, W. H. Harrison and Taylor, were military heroes who were nominated largely for that reason. The financial panic of 1837 and the resulting depression was the chief cause of Harrison's victory, while a reaction against the Mexican War split the Democratic party and aided in the victory of Taylor.

The Whig party played in hard luck in that both of its elected Presidents died in office. Their successors—Tyler and Fillmore—were not strong enough to secure renomination, let alone re-election. It is interesting to note that every time the Whig party drafted a platform of principles, it was defeated; when it adopted no platform, it won.

After gaining the Presidency and then losing it, the Whig party came back once. Never an organic unit, the party disappeared between 1854 and 1860, because it took no definite stand on the slavery question. During its two terms in office the party made no worth-while contributions.

The present Republican party was the fourth one in point of time to achieve the Presidency. Born in 1854 it soon superseded the Whigs as one of the two major parties of the country. It has been in power fifty-six years—from 1861 to 1933—minus the sixteen years of Cleveland and Wilson. It has nominated candidates twenty-one times, from 1856 to 1936 inclusive, and has won fourteen elections.

In two of these elections, those of 1876 and 1888, its candidates for the Presidency received fewer popular votes than the Democratic candidates received, but won because the peculiar functioning of the electoral college sometimes gives the highest office in the land to the loser rather than to the winner.

The Presidents elected by the Republican party, together with the dates of the elections won, include:

Lincoln	1860, 1864	T. Roosevelt	1904
Grant	1868, 1872	Taft	1908
Hayes	1876	Harding	1920
Garfield	1880	Coolidge	1924
B. Harrison	1888	Hoover	1928
McKinley	1896, 1900		

Two accidental Presidents, Johnson and Arthur, were Republicans, but they were not elected to the office.

A summary of the facts just given shows that the Federalist party was in power eight years, the Whig party eight years, the Republican party fifty-six years, while the Democratic party alone has been in power exactly seventy-two years (to 1937). In other words, one party has been in possession of the Presidency as long as all the others put together.

The records of the Federalist and Whig parties are similar in that each nominated candidates seven times and won two elections. Each was also a minor party in the sense of having to combat a much

stronger opponent. The two parties differed in two respects: (1) the Federalist party never came back after defeat, while the Whig party came back once, (2) both of the elected Whig Presidents died in office, therefore that party had four Presidents as against two for the Federalists.

The careers of the Democratic and Republican parties are also very similar. The former was the dominant party prior to the War Between the States; the latter since that event. The rule of the Democrats from 1801 to 1861 was broken by two Whig administrations; the sway of the Republicans from 1861 to 1933 was broken by two Democratic Presidents, Cleveland and Wilson. Each of these two great parties served long periods without interruption: the Republicans for twenty-four years, from 1861 to 1885; the Democrats for forty years, from 1801 to 1841.

While the Democratic party has been in power seventy-two years as opposed to fifty-six years for the Republicans, the latter has won the larger percentage of victories. The figures are: for the Democrats nineteen victories in thirty-six elections and for the Republicans fourteen victories in twenty-one elections. If the popular vote had decided the elections of 1876 and 1888, the percentage of victories won by the two parties would be practically the same.

While the Democrats won nineteen elections to fourteen for the Republicans, the former have had only twelve individuals in the office of President as against thirteen for the latter party. This discrepancy is explained by the facts that seven Democratic Presi-

dents were re-elected and none has died in office; while but three Republican Presidents were re-elected but four died in office.

Only one party has lived throughout the entire national period of our history. That is the Democratic party. The opposition has been composed of three parties—Federalist, Whig and Republican.

The Federalist party nominated no candidate for President in 1820. It had disappeared from the national field before 1827. The Whig party, called at first National Republican, then took its place. The last time the Whigs nominated a regular candidate for the Presidency was in 1852, when General Scott was disastrously beaten. The party soon disappeared, to be followed by the Republican party in 1854-55.

There have, therefore, been two realignments of parties in our history; one of them in the administration of J. Q. Adams and the other in that of Franklin Pierce. These facts serve to throw the history of American political parties into three periods: the first from 1791 to about 1825; the second from about 1825 to 1854; the third from about 1854 to the present (1937). During the first period the opposing parties were Federalist and Democratic, during the second period they were Whig and Democratic, while during the third period they have been Republican and Democratic. The Federalists, Whigs and Republicans are not one and the same party under different names.

<sup>1</sup> Calhoun alternated between the Democratic and Whig parties.

## Internes in Citizenship<sup>1</sup>

EDGAR G. JOHNSTON

Principal, University High School  
University of Michigan

I have a feeling that no meetings scheduled in conjunction with the convention of the National Education Association are so important as those represented by the National Association of Student Officers. In other places we are told how education ought to be motivated, how pupils should be given opportunities to participate, what student leadership ought to be. Here is the one place in the convention where student initiative is not only preached but practiced, where policies are not decided *for* but *by* the school generation. The increasing momentum of the student government movement is an encouraging sign. The student of medicine may not practice his craft until he has demonstrated command of medical knowledge and skill as an interne. It is appropriate for the young

citizen to experience a similar period of preparation. As student leaders you are serving your civic internship.

We do not ask ourselves frequently enough, either as a nation or as individuals, what a high school education is really for. Each year the American people spend more than two billion dollars in support of public schools. This national enterprise involves almost twenty-five thousand high schools, a quarter of a million teachers, and nearly six million pupils. That represents a very large national investment and it seems a matter of just ordinary horse-sense to raise the question as to what dividends are received from this investment and whether it is worth the cost. What is high school education for? It is not to be

measured solely in terms of facts amassed. If that were to be the only measure applied, it would be less expensive for your board of education to buy each student an encyclopedia. Most of you have had a happy time, I hope, during your high school years. The associations with your classmates have been pleasant; you have amassed some interesting information; you have participated in student activities which have proved enjoyable and satisfying. All this has been worth while, but it does not sufficiently justify the expenditure that has been made. We could find much cheaper ways as a nation to keep the youth of high school age agreeably entertained.

We used to hear a lot about the financial value of a high school education and see figures purporting to prove that salaries of those who had attended high school were so many hundred dollars in advance of grade-school graduates and that averages for each year of college attendance surpassed those attained by students who had attended a shorter time. Many well-meaning teachers and principals urged pupils to continue education on the basis of this argument. They were undoubtedly sincere in doing so, but I am afraid that they unconsciously misled many trusting students. While there are some positions which demand special kinds of training, and unquestionably vocational success has some relation with education, it is probable that our statistics illustrated the fallacy of "post hoc ergo propter hoc." That is, we argued a cause and effect relationship that did not exist. Those who had economic advantages also went farther in school. The absurdity of the kind of reasoning which makes schooling and salary a matter of cause and effect was illustrated a few years ago by a practical joker who collected statistics of the number of years of Latin which various high school students had studied and the figures of their parents' salaries. The writer then drew the interesting conclusion that the best way to raise your father's salary was to take more Latin. No, the justification of public education will not be found in selfish aims or individual advantage. Even if our rosy statistics had been true, we cannot justify taxing everyone in order to make possible some special advantage for a few.

The true purpose of public education has never been more clearly conceived than by the founders of the American Republic—Washington, Jefferson, Adams, Franklin. You will remember Washington's statement in his Farewell Address: "Promote, then, as an object of primary importance, institutions for the general diffusion of knowledge. In proportion as the structure of a government gives force to public opinion, it is essential that public opinion should be enlightened." The founders of our republic saw education as a bulwark of democracy and a safeguard to the democratic institutions they had fostered. We are meeting in this convention today in what was

once part of the Northwest Territory. When this section was still a wilderness of uncut forest inhabited only by Indians and wild animals, our pioneering forefathers envisioned here a great civilization. In their planning for it they included provision for education as a cornerstone of the structure they would build. In the famous ordinance which provided for this territory they made very clear the purpose which, in their judgment, public education should perform: "Schools and the means of education shall forever be encouraged for good government and the happiness of mankind."

"Good government and the happiness of mankind" depend primarily upon citizens who are intelligent about the problems which they must face, who have a sense of loyalty and responsibility toward that government of which they are a part, and who have had some practice in working cooperatively toward the solution of problems. The high school which I attended failed almost completely to realize this responsibility or to do anything very intelligent about it. It was rather typical of the high schools of a generation ago, and I am afraid the same attitude can be found in a good many schools today. There was no student council, no active home room organization, almost no partnership of pupils in carrying on the activities of the school. The school seemed to feel that its responsibility for "good government" had been fulfilled when each of us had been exposed to a one-year course in what was called civil government. The course was almost entirely one of memorizing facts about the officers and governmental organization of Pennsylvania and the United States. I learned the qualifications for a United States senator and a Pennsylvania legislator, the requisite age for each type of office, and the number of members in the legislature and the salaries of each. There was much more we learned—we even learned to name the counties of Pennsylvania alphabetically. These facts we mastered very thoroughly, for the teacher of the class was known as a strict taskmaster and it went hard with the student who could not give back these facts on examination. Outside of class we thought of this teacher as a pretty good scout. I used to go rabbit hunting with him on Saturdays—out of season—and it never occurred to either of us that there was any connection between civil government and respect on our part for the game laws of Pennsylvania.

This was in Pennsylvania twenty-five years ago, but I have a suspicion that there are schools today where the preparation of pupils for the duties, responsibilities, and rights of citizenship has not progressed very much beyond the stage represented in that high school. There are still schools where pupils learn facts about government and dates of history but are led to no understanding of their duties and

responsibilities as citizens and are given no opportunity to practice responsible self-government in their schools.

How absurd this is, might be illustrated by a hypothetical swimming course to be introduced in high school. The course would require no laboratory, no swimming pool, no trips to a nearby lake or river. This would be no easy practical course. We would study about some of the great swimmers of history—not at the Olympic games; that is entirely too recent. We would read how Leander swam the Hellespont, of Jonah and the whale, of that famous standard-bearer of the Tenth Legion who leaped into the water and swam toward the enemy, setting an example of bravery for his comrades. Ancient history is full of incidents which might be used to embellish such a course. It must have a scientific point of view, so we would study the displacement of the human body in water, and the number of foot pounds of energy required to swim a hundred yards. We could include some excellent and intriguing problems of mathematics about A swimming upstream when the current is five miles an hour and B swimming down, and if they start five miles apart how long will it take them to meet. We would have no instruction in the various swimming strokes and no practice periods in the swimming pool. Our course would be thoroughly respectable and academic. Naturally, when the students reach the age of twenty-one we would take them out to the middle of Lake Michigan and drop them overboard and let them swim to shore—if they could.

I know that the civics courses in our better schools have changed greatly since my day, and that the attempt is made increasingly to introduce pupils to realities of government in their own communities and in the state and nation. Most significant is the fact that they are becoming laboratories of citizenship. I can think of no more hopeful signs for the development of intelligent and responsible citizenship than the growth in the movement represented at the conference of this organization. Pupil participation is "the swimming pool of citizenship." It is here that pupils may receive an opportunity to practice the solutions of problems of community living. It is not a knowledge of the forms of government that is needed if our democracy is to endure. It is rather a habit of respect for the rights of other people, an attitude of responsibility toward obligations one has assumed, a willingness to hear both sides in a dispute and make a decision in the light of the evidence.

Throughout the world in the last few years there have been disturbing signs for the permanence of democratic government—that government which is based upon the consent of the governed and the decision of matters of policy by the majority vote of those concerned. In Europe whole peoples have been

regimented into subservience to the whims of irresponsible dictators, fear and hatred have been substituted for reason and humanity, and the rumblings of the next world war are heard in the offing. Some people fear that America may go the way that Russia and Germany and Italy have gone, that the methods of democracy will not serve to solve the complicated problems of our day, and that America must choose between a dictatorship of the right and one of the left. I do not hold with these critics that the hope for democracy has passed, but it must be recognized that it can survive only as we preserve the conditions which make it possible. Some of those conditions are economic, some have to do with social conditions of living. Most significant of all in my judgment are the attitudes of citizens toward their government. May I touch on three qualities of its citizens which must exist in a democracy if it is to survive and succeed?

In the first place, there must be intelligent and thoughtful study which involves tolerance of points of view which differ from our own. Problems of government, whether it be in Congress, in the city council, or in a school, do not have some one set answer which you can find in the back of the book. We have to be willing to hear the arguments of the person who holds a different view than ours, to weigh his ideas and to change our own if we find that we are wrong. We need to think with our minds and not with our prejudices. Too many of us are like the Irishman who did not like olives and "was glad he didn't, for if he liked them he would eat them and he hated the darned things."

A second characteristic a democracy demands of its citizens is the ability to work with other people. James Truslow Adams has well said that we have heard much of the Declaration of Independence but that what we need in America today is a Declaration of Interdependence. My grandfather grew up on a farm in Ohio where it was a mile to the nearest neighbor and a day's trip to the county seat fifteen miles away. They hewed the timbers for their barn from the farm wood lot and split the shingles which would form its roof. They raised the flax and the wool which were spun into thread and woven into cloth in the farmhouse. They dug the clay and made their bricks, baked their bread, butchered their own beef and pork, and formed on this farm a self-contained community. They knew real independence.

Times have changed. The people living on that farm buy butter and bread manufactured in the city and shipped to the village store. They sell their produce in town and their prosperity depends on that of the city laboring man. They join with their neighbors to secure good roads and better schools. For recreation they turn on the radio or drive to the nearby city to a motion picture. Their isolation is gone. They have comforts and conveniences my grandfather

never dreamed of, but they have lost some of the independence he knew. Coöperation is an absolute essential in the modern world.

Most important of all in a democracy is the sense of personal responsibility. Driving the old gray mare down the country road did not require much care or forethought. A high-powered car on a modern highway demands a clear head, steady nerves, and a high sense of responsibility. Every time you drive ten miles you place your life in the hands of a hundred people you have never seen. The terrific toll of traffic accidents has awakened the public conscience to the need of education for safety—that is, for highway responsibility. What is true of our highways is typical of every phase of our complicated modern civilization. Responsibility is the price we must pay for the benefits of community life.

The experiences in student government have provided you a splendid apprenticeship for the opportunities and responsibilities of citizenship. The problems of community living which you are solving now are essentially those you will meet tomorrow. In each case intelligent planning, team work, and loyalty to the interests of the group are the requisites for success. It will be a happy day for America when our political affairs are handled as efficiently and unselfishly as the student activities of our high schools.

Anatole France tells an incident of his boyhood, when he was to leave home for the first time to attend a boarding school. His father, an anthropologist, called the lad into his study and, picking from his desk a pointed piece of bone, said to the boy: "Here is the tooth of a man who lived in the time of the mammoth, in a cavern bare and desolate where now green vine and honeysuckle grows. . . . Now the music of Mozart floats on the air where the caveman heard only the growling of the tiger. That man knew only fear and hunger. He looked like a wild beast, with his heavy eyebrows, massive jaws, and teeth which jutted out like fangs. But gradually, by slow and magnificent efforts, man, now less wretched, became less fierce. The habit of thought developed his brain and widened his brow. His teeth, no longer used to tear raw flesh, became less prominent and his jaw less massive. The human face took on the aspects of beauty and the smile was born on the lips of woman."

Then lifting above his head the caveman's tooth, the father cried: "Oh, ancestor of mine, in that unfathomable past where you rest, receive the homage of my remembrance, for I know what I owe to you. Your struggles spared me hardships. You didn't

think of the future, it is true. Only a feeble glimmer of intelligence flickered in that brain of yours. You scarcely knew more than to forage for food and to hide from your enemies. But you were a man! A vague ideal guided you toward the good and the beautiful. You lived a wretched life but you did not live in vain, and that wretched existence was made a little less terrifying for your children. They labored in their turn to make it better. One invented the mill, another the wheel. They were inventors and craftsmen and that struggle carried down through the ages has produced the marvels which make our life pleasant."

Here the father turned to his son: "Very well! The task is not yet finished. We would be less civilized than the caveman if in our turn we did not strive to pass on to our children a better and a happier life than we received ourselves."

The generation to which I belong has bequeathed you some staggering problems. With the technical equipment to produce an abundance of everything, many people face the specter of want. With a rich cultural heritage to draw upon and the leisure to make life significant, we have allowed that leisure to be exploited for profit. The pattern of national taste has been set by the trashy magazines which clutter our newsstands, the stupid and trivial broadcasts which occupy so much of radio time, and the vulgar motion pictures which too frequently form our theatrical fare. We have tolerated selfishness, graft, and incompetence on the part of those elected to carry on our political affairs. We allowed ourselves to drift into a war which nearly destroyed our civilization and are heading almost inevitably toward another.

We have made tremendous advances in shaping material things to serve our ends, but our technical progress has outrun our ability to use these powers with safety to ourselves and our neighbors. It is the task of your generation to close this gap between technical efficiency and human happiness. I leave with you the challenge of Anatole France. I have confidence that you will meet these problems more intelligently, more responsibly, more coöperatively than we have done. The best hope for the future is to be found in the increasing opportunities for students to practice solving the problems of community living in school and the responsible way in which they have served their internship.

<sup>1</sup> An address delivered before the sixth annual convention of the National Association of Student Officers, Detroit, July 3, 1937.

# Challenging Articles on Social Studies Teaching—A Review

LEONARD GERNANT

*High School, East Lansing, Michigan*

Guided by the "signs of the times" that hold before teachers of the social sciences the inherent importance of their field in the curriculum of the schools, as well as the increased emphasis recently laid on the need for changes in curricular organization, the writer spent a good share of the past summer in pursuing various sources for articles and books, particularly pertinent to these trends of our time. As a result of his effort he has compiled a long list of dozens of titles of magazine articles, courses of study, and books on the general subject of social science teaching as it particularly relates to changes in its own field and to changes in the curriculum as a whole.

It would be impossible in the space allotted to include the titles of all of these sources of information regarding the teaching of the social sciences. Several articles, however, were particularly outstanding in their treatment of the subject at hand. Some of them dealt with teaching methods; others with materials of a more general nature. The selections presented here are regarded by the writer as being particularly stimulating in the field. They represent a cross-section of the opinion currently expressed in regard to many of the problems that confront us as instructors in social science. The list is by no means exhaustive. It is only an inkling of the amount of reading a teacher has the opportunity to do in this field. Wherever practicable, direct quotations have been made from the articles themselves in order to give the reader as fair an impression as possible in regard to the source described.

Bagley, William C., "The Task of Education in a Period of Rapid Social Change," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, November, 1933, pages 561-570: "Again let me say that some of the facts of economics and sociology may well be included in both the elementary and high school programs, but let us not deceive ourselves into thinking that we can in this way enable the pupils to solve in advance, so to speak, the problems that will confront them when theirs is the dominant generation. Some present social problems are, of course, likely to persist, but even these, or most of them at least, are equally likely to have a new setting which will quite alter their nature."

Professor Bagley goes on to score severely those who believe that changes in the teaching of the social sciences should be based on (1) the conviction that there are no eternal verities or values, (2) the theory that the curricula are dictated by a capitalist class to prevent the rise of the proletariat, and (3) on the discovery that anyone who does anything or is made to do anything that he does not want to do at the moment of doing is in danger of disintegrating his personality. He cites the failure of the Progressive ideas in education in a twelve-year trial in Russia and the substitution of a program of systematic and sequential learning.

Barham, Thomas C. Jr., "Methods and Points of Emphasis in the Social Problems Course," *THE SOCIAL STUDIES*, March, 1936, pages 186-190: The author is strong in his belief that the social problems courses can provide valuable opportunities for the student to get from them certain attitudes and skills that will stay with him after his days in school. He believes that social science teachers should (1) build up a continuing interest in social problems, (2) prepare, through classroom work, for the assumption of civic obligations of one kind and another, (3) make the acquaintance of various kinds of informational aids, particularly those given out by the federal government. In these ways, the author believes, social science instructors will be further along on the way toward effective teaching and the students will be given more effective tools with which to attack their social problems in everyday life.

Barnes, C. C., "Teaching Political Citizenship in the Schools," *THE SOCIAL STUDIES*, May, 1936, pages 315-319: This article is especially fine for its statement of aims. It relates how the students in the public schools of Detroit are taught by actual experience in a school situation, the methods of voting, studying elections, and becoming acquainted with records of candidates. Types of activities to achieve these ends are suggested.

Barrett, Lynn M., Mary Ross, and Olive Stewart, "Social Studies Courses in the University Senior High School," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, October, 1935, pages 431-435: This article discusses in an able fashion the set-up of the courses in the

high school connected with the University of California in Oakland. It gives a complete picture of the social studies curriculum in this senior high school with pertinent suggestions to those still following traditional lines. Courses in personal management for "low" tenth graders and a course in social living for "high" tenth graders are subjects of stimulating discussion. The teachers, in this program as outlined, follow through with the same groups they begin with, to a large extent. In this way they can constantly check on the development of the individual. The program represents a definite attempt, according to the authors, to revise the social studies curriculum along lines suggested by a study of adolescent needs.

Bayles, Ernest E., "Inculcation or Education?" *Educational Administration and Supervision*, April, 1935, pages 299-308: An article that advocates strongly that teachers keep an "open mind" on issues of a controversial nature. There is recognition of the fact that "the immediate subject-matter of the social sciences is social problems; problems which become such by virtue of the conflicts existing in the social tradition." The article is particularly recommended for reading to those teachers in the social sciences who have difficulties in relating, philosophically, the subject-matter they teach, to the general social scene.

Blair, John L., "Social Studies and the Textbook Complex," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, November, 1933, pages 613-620: The author is convinced that if social science teachers are to do a good job, they should not force their students to accept "the pre-digested concepts of a more or less professional." He argues that the students should be allowed to draw their own inferences from a mass of readings. While these ideas are not new, of course, the article may be read with profit by any teacher, if only for the sake of re-emphasizing the contention that teaching social science from one textbook is *not* the same as teaching social science in an open-minded, inquiring fashion.

Mr. Blair writes very graphically on this subject: "A particularly forceful illustration of the inapplicability of the textbook method to the social studies, compared to other high school subjects, grows out of this discussion of inductive learning. In much of the sciences, for example, laws may be derived from relatively few specific illustrations which are simple and incontrovertible. A law of the expansion of gases is made as an easy interpretation of what happens when a rubber balloon is pumped full of air. The underlying principle, is not nearly so evident, however, when an Insull pumps himself full of public utilities. Let two physical masses of specified weight and momentum collide and a physical law may be derived. But let the advertising campaigns of a few toothpaste makers converge upon an ultimate consumer, and the basic theory is not so apparent. . . .

Certain chemical elements cast into a beaker will lead to a chemical formula; but a Republican, a Socialist, a Presbyterian, a banker, and an Elk, cast into that social test tube known as a Board of Education will lead to nobody knows what. In short, a textbook in natural science can conform to inductive necessity because its cases can be concise and definite; but since the situations in a social science are rarely, if ever, brief and exact, a textbook must forever clash with induction."

Cobb, Stanwood, "Social Science in the Progressive School," *Education*, May, 1934, pages 527-531: This author makes a plea for bringing before youth the really vital situations of the day. He writes, "The problem now facing education is not, 'How can we improve the teaching of Latin and Greek and mathematics?' but rather, 'How can we set forth to youth the political, economic and social problems of today in such a way that youth shall become not only ardent students of, but creative contributors to, the progress of civilization?'" The author reaches the conclusion that educators today will be judged on one question, "In how far did you help youth to apply their full potentiality to the upbuilding of a better world?"

Counts, George S., "The Opportunity of the Social Studies Teacher," *THE SOCIAL STUDIES*, January, 1936, pages 6-11: Professor Counts holds that the social science teachers have become a "storm center" because of the social times in which they practice their profession. In times of social stability, Professor Counts points out, the social studies teachers are not bothered by outside interests. Now it happens that the specialty of the social scientist affects social change. There is a fear, the author contends, that the teachings of the social scientists will be caught up and bear what he terms "social fruit." He also scores teachers' oath laws. He points out the possibilities of strength in numbers: "No previous society in history ever had among its citizens one million, one hundred thousand teachers." Professor Counts also denounces the instructions given by the federal government's own manuals to CCC camp teachers in directing them to avoid dangerous issues. By implication Professor Counts urges that social science instructors, particularly, bring issues into the open and face them squarely by fair studies on both sides of the question.

Cushman, C. L., "Dealing with Controversial Topics," *Junior-Senior High School Clearing House*, October, 1933, pages 94-97: This author gives four essentials in the approach to controversial issues: "(1) A clear understanding that our purpose is to help pupils to develop habits of critical thinking and not to indoctrinate them with predetermined conclusions. (2) A realization that the foundation of ill-formed convictions on the part of immature youth leads away rather than towards the achievement of this purpose. (3) The development in the pupils of

a readiness to admit that their tentative conclusions may be mistaken and will need re-examination with advancing years. (4) A readiness to admit that many subjects and certain phases of many others are beyond the understanding of pupils, at least in the early years of high school."

Feeler, William H., "Functional Courses in Social Problems," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, October, 1935, pages 428-430: This article relates the experiences of the author in the administration of a course in American problems required of all twelfth graders in the Monrovia-Arcadia-Duarte high school. The aim was to aid the students in adjusting themselves to the social world. The approach was from the standpoint of the students' own problems. It was announced in the beginning that there would be no home-work, no regular examinations, no textbook or syllabus. When the students began working on their own list of problems, they were graded in their progress on the basis of quantity of work, the quality of the work with grades established by reading committees, and the interest they took in their work, with the grade established here by the instructor. Mr. Feeler concludes, "Experience has shown that it is necessary to have all the students working in the same field at the same time in order to make the discussions most profitable to the greatest number."

Gell, Kenneth E., "What the Rochester Schools Are Doing about Internationalism," *Journal of Educational Sociology*, March, 1936, pages 397-407: This describes the set-up of the curriculum in this field from the second grade through senior high school. It represents an attempt at integration of the social studies as far as the study of internationalism is concerned. The parallel program worked out in extra-curricular activities is especially interesting.

Greenan, John T., "Controversial Subjects in the Curriculum," *Junior-Senior High School Clearing House*, October, 1933, pages 98-101: Mr. Greenan presents a strong case for the teaching of controversial issues in the schools. He believes that the teaching of controversial issues is in accordance with the objectives of tax-supported schools, it is in accordance with sound psychological principles, it should develop desirable attitudes and habits, the practice of teaching in this manner is enjoyed by the students, and to avoid these issues is to betray the trust which young people place in their teachers.

Harden, Mary, Mary G. Marshall, and Willis C. Armstrong, "Introducing High School Students to Modern Cultures Other Than Their Own." *Teachers College Record*, May, 1935, pages 675-687: An article describing the techniques used in helping students study the cultures of England, Russia, France, and the Far East. The work dealing with the study of England and modern Russia is described in this

article. The reaction of the students to Russia is particularly revealing of the effectiveness of the type of approach described. A summarizing statement by the authors reads: "It was the impression of the teachers that the group showed certain outstanding tendencies as results of the Russian study: an increased understanding of some of the factors that have contributed in the making of the Russian nation, better comprehension of Russian affairs today as revealed by its past, a vastly greater intellectual curiosity and interest in Russian and world events, and an increased tolerance and willingness to listen to differing points of view on a controversial subject."

Harden, Mary, Louise Taggart, and Irene E. Lemon, "Introducing High School Students to a Study of American Civilization and Culture," *Teachers College Record*, January, 1935, pages 279-291: An article every teacher who is interested in correlation, should read. The authors, affiliated with the Horace Mann School for Girls at Columbia University, relate their experiences in a course in American civilization. The drama, literature, art, music, etc. were used widely in the study. Some attempt was made to discover a suitable and working definition of culture. The experiment may be summarized by quoting their concluding paragraph: "Thus by coöperative planning and teaching, various phases of American life and thought have been brought before the students in the Horace Mann School; and through these means they have been made acquainted, insofar as it was possible, with the complex and changing life of the present day, together with the legacy of American civilization."

Judd, Charles H., "Teaching Government in the Public Schools," *School and Society*, January 23, 1932, pages 104-108: Professor Judd makes a general plea for an increased appreciation of the functions of government, as well as of all other functions, such as even counting and reading. He advocates that government be made a more challenging, dynamic, and revealing study of functions. He suggests that the course begin with a study of a bureau, such as the Bureau of Standards.

Kidger, Horace, "The Plan of Social Studies in the Senior High School," *Education*, May, 1934, pages 531-535: The author writes, "The place of social studies in the curriculum is to establish and confirm attitudes of mind which may carry out into vital understandings. . . . It is futile to label the course 'Problems of Democracy' if, as one professor of education is reported to have said is true, all debatable problems are left out. . . . Outcomes rather than factual knowledge is of greatest importance."

Kimmel, W. G., "Social Studies in the Changing Curriculum of the High School," *National Education Association, Addresses and Proceedings*, 1933, pages 495-496: This article is recommended to those social

science teachers who wish to broaden their view of their specialty in the curriculum as a whole. The author writes, "While the youth of Europe are marching under the banners of Stalin, Mussolini, and Hitler, with compasses, charts, points of reference, and an enthusiasm for the journey, regardless of uncertainties as to destination, our youth . . . are floundering in confusion, trying without adequate points of reference or appealing symbols, to find their uncertain way through the ever-widening area between American ideals or fictions and realities." He maintains that a change will come only when Americans are guided by basic ideas rather than by slogans. Americans need alertness in detecting superstitions, propaganda, and fallacies in reasoning imposed upon them by dominant groups or institutions.

Krey, A. C., "Dealing with Controversial Topics," *Junior-Senior High School Clearing House*, October, 1933, pages 90-93: Mr. Krey says that the problem of dealing with controversial issues is one of the greatest stumbling-blocks in the way of any beginning teacher. He writes ". . . able, experienced and wise teachers of the social sciences do not avoid, but actually welcome, controversial issues of the moment as an aid to the teaching of social science subjects." Good teachers, he maintains, welcome this opportunity because it gives them a chance, not to decide issues, but to encourage thought and reflection.

Loomis, A. K., "Should Contemporary Life be Studied in High School?" *The Nation's Schools*, February, 1934, pages 31-35: The author outlines the plans set up at the University of Chicago High School which are designed to provide for correlation in various subjects. "An education in contemporary life is thought of in this discussion as including the understanding of the social, economic and political phases of human life today in the community, the state, the nation and the family of nations in the context of the history of civilization and with due regard for the geographic factors that influence human living. Obviously, any reasonably complete and adequate understanding of contemporary life thus involves the contributions of anthropology, sociology, economics, political science, history, and geography."

Madsen, I. N., "How Practical Is 'Progressive Education' for Public Schools Today?" *Educational Administration and Supervision*, April, 1933, pages 49-59: An article evaluating the claims of the members of the Progressive education school. The author raises several issues which Progressives must face and he cites many difficulties which will be encountered by them in extending their program to include the public schools, the parochial schools, and even churches and industry.

Mahoney, John J., "A New Deal for the Social Studies," *Education*, May, 1934, pages 550-554: Mr. Mahoney believes that there are four definite short-

comings in our American democracy. He lists them as (1) a lack of interest in things political, (2) a need for more intelligence in the conduct of things political, (3) a need for more political leaders of the right sort, and (4) a change in our present free and easy attitude toward the law. He recommends that the colleges prepare teachers who will be adequately equipped to handle these problems as well as the education of the adults in the school community to an understanding of any necessary changes so the teachers need not fear the loss of positions.

McCutchen, S. P., "The Real Task of the Social Studies," *Progressive Education*, December, 1935, pages 543-547: The author holds that teachers should be more concerned with the behavior patterns of their students than with the actual recitations which imply the memorization of facts. "The attitudes which the school develops are much more important than the facts learned." He believes that the social studies can develop such attitudes as coöperation, patriotism, open-mindedness, the acceptance of political and social responsibility, and intellectual self-confidence. He surmises that there will be an increasing importance placed upon the social studies and their function in the curriculum, during the next fifty years.

Melbo, Irving L., "Information of High School Seniors on Contemporary Problems," *THE SOCIAL STUDIES*, February, 1936, pages 82-86: The author found by actual test that graduating seniors possess a certain amount of information on about one-third of the issues presented; they lack definite information or are misinformed on one-third of the issues; and they have definite misinformation on the remaining third of the issues. He concludes that the graduating seniors represented in this study do not have enough information even to begin to contribute to a solution of the problems. There is in the article an interesting table of current issues with related test items which may prove valuable to teachers in suggesting such methods of testing.

Nietz, John A., "Guiding Principles in Teaching the Social Studies," *Education*, January, 1936, pages 314-316: Professor Nietz presents certain underlying principles which he feels must be employed by the social studies teacher. They are divided into three parts: (1) Objectives in teaching the social studies, (2) principles governing the social studies curriculum, and (3) principles governing the methods of teaching the social studies. The principles are listed in brief paragraphs. Of his own reaction to the teaching of current issues, he says, "The method of studying live issues in the classroom should be characterized by impartiality, candor, and critical thinking—the objective being learning how to think, not so much merely what to think."

Tucker, H. R., "Humanizing the Social Sciences,"

*School Executives Magazine*, March, 1935, pages 204-205: The author makes a plea for bolder methods of teaching the social sciences in the high school levels. He advocates separate single semester courses in economics and sociology, a year's course in "American Problems" or "Problems of Democracy," and the teaching of all history courses with distinct emphasis upon economic and sociological content, especially in the modern and American history courses. He regards as the goals of social science, ". . . the growth of rational attitudes, of the proper bent of mind, of a social will. . . ." The fact that some of these cannot be measured diagnostically does not deter him from his course of action. He says, "Let us not crucify the fine opportunity of training the student to adjust himself to, and even control his environment on the altar of too specific a measuring rod."

Willis, Margaret, "The Real Task of the Social Studies: Some Implications," *Progressive Education*, April, 1936, pages 282-285: The author maintains that the arrangement of the subject matter by the

teacher will not go far in developing attitudes in children. "These grow when the child consciously seeks light on problems which concern him." She suggests that teachers let students help make courses of study as a means of "socializing" them. "We cannot teach the children more than a small fraction of what they are going to need to know. We have no right to teach them conclusions since we have no guarantee of the finality of any. Therefore, we must help the child to learn to deal with facts and draw his own conclusions. Since that is slow, we must help him while he is with us to develop interests, habits, contacts, and skills such that he will continue his education after he leaves us."

Wrightstone, J. Wayne, "Measuring Some Major Objectives of the Social Studies," *The School Review*, December, 1935, pages 771-779: This article tells about the techniques employed in measuring some of the newer objectives in the social studies. It is recommended to any teacher interested in measurements of this type. It is important in view of the many changes that are being made in the curriculum.

## A Philosophical Classification of Historiography

SALVATORE RUSSO

*Auburn, New York*

All former attempts to classify historiography, or written history, have been both casual and futile because the art of the historian has not received philosophical treatment. Historiography is not primarily a science or a species of literature, but philosophy, and should, therefore, be classified according to the different theories of truth which are the kernel of the various philosophical systems. This is, perhaps, the first attempt to do so.

There are two reasons why historiography must be considered philosophical. First, each historical opus is a philosophy since it treats of the truth and reality of the past. What the historian takes to be true and real, determines the nature of his narrative and the significance of its contents. Second, it is the office of the historian to interpret and explain as well as to collate and transcribe the facts of history, for what people do is an expression of what they think. If history consisted only of what people did, the causes and motives of human conduct would be excluded from our narratives and all our action would be the effects of blind and unknown causes. Deeds and

events assume people, and people have ideas and principles, however vague and unformulated, which motivate their action and dominate their lives. The spiritual and intellectual life is not contained in the news column nor in the mail order catalogue. The deeds and purchases of men are meaningless in themselves; they have to be understood and evaluated if they are to have any significance. Hegel showed his customary wisdom when he likened the situation to the face of a clock, saying that it was not the motion of the hands that mattered, but the meaning involved.

The theories of history are numerous. Some historians believe that history refers to the events, and others think that history is a study of records and remains, of documents, chronicles, and the like. Some take it to be a bald but accurate account of what has actually taken place, while others mean by history an interpreted account or narrative that is more than a temporal sequence or a chronological order of events. Finally, there are those who take history to be the actualization of the world-spirit in space and time.

Furthermore, the form or pattern of history is

varied. Some believe in a linear concept of history that progresses toward a goal or end, as Comte did, and others, like Schopenhauer, believe that history leads nowhere. Perhaps they can all be reduced to three basic types. (1) The treadmill concept of history. This is the theory of the cyclic recurrences of events, of cultures, and civilizations; it affirms that everything that has happened will be faithfully reproduced and rehearsed. This aimless conception with its endless success of identical cycles is often called the Greek theory of history. While this theory of cycles which characterized Greek thought played a prominent rôle in the philosophy of the Pythagoreans and the Stoics, it is also abundantly found in their literature and mythology. The myth of Tantalus and of Sisyphus, the labor of the Danaïdes, and Penelope weaving and unweaving the shroud for Laertes are classic examples. This theory has had many sponsors, such as Schlegel and Mendelsohn, or in more recent times Dawson and the late Oswald Spengler.

(2) The dramatic or epic theory of history which resembles the Greek tragedies in that it has a beginning, a middle and an end. Explanation is similar to that found in the ancient drama called the "action": an attempt to explain what brought on the end. Gibbon wrote this sort of history. Beginning with the barefoot friars in the ruins of the Eternal City, he went back and followed the steps that led to its downfall. Perhaps the best examples are found in Christian histories dramatically portraying the life of the world from creation to the day of judgment.

(3) The evolutionary theory of history. This progresses by spirals, usually triadic in nature, and takes us on toward perfection and the absolute. Vico and Hegel with his dialectic gave us three-fold divisions of universal history of this nature.

These divisions are unsatisfactory because they are based on superficial similarities and lump together many historiographies of a radically different nature. In the treadmill or cyclic category, for instance, is contained such antithetical philosophies of history as Spengler's determinism and Dawson's indeterminism. Furthermore, the reason for this great diversity is not to be found in the nature of experience, nor in the content of historical documents, but in the philosophy of the historians.

The nature of every historiography is determined by the author's unconscious acceptance of one of the three major theories of truth, the idealistic, the realistic, and the pragmatic. These three concepts of truth, as is well known, constitute the kernel of the philosophies that bear those names. They also give us three types of historiography that explain and encompass all the forms of history.

#### *Idealistic Historiography*

It is evident that historical remains are necessarily fragmentary, and records incomplete and misleading,

that art enhances or destroys their value, and that interests dwarf or magnify the incidents of history.<sup>1</sup> The sources that have been preserved are usually colored by some bias; forgeries are numerous, documents are enlarged, annotated, and embellished; some are lost, others destroyed, and their significance is often misunderstood. In our own times one paper prints all the news fit to print, and another publishes all the news that is unfit to print. Where, then, one might ask, shall we find a faithful index or reliable guide to the facts of history? The idealist points to reason, for the real is the rational and the rational is the real for him.

In the philosophy of Hegel, Reality was something rational, a necessary and logical process that moved and lived. The purpose of philosophy was to understand this dynamic reality, to comprehend this substance that evolved according to a definite pattern. Each stage in this evolution contained all its preceding states and was big with the future. The world at every moment was a product and a process. Viewed as pure thought we have philosophy, viewed from its appearance in space and time we have history. Hegel made history the biography of God, and the State, the march of God through the world.<sup>2</sup> This was not an allegorical statement, a poetic fancy something like the truth, but a literal expression of his historical theme.

History to the Idealist is both an exhibition of the world spirit and a narration of it. But the technical philosophers insist that history is contemporaneous, not merely something of the past: not a post-mortem examination but a resurrection. In the narration, history has to be reborn and remade. Croce scoffs at the academic historians who think they have history locked up in the pages of their books or the walls of the archives, like the Genii who was compressed in a small vase in the Arabian Nights. History is always living and quick, and not to be confused with a record of the past. "History is living chronicle, chronicle is dead history; history is contemporary history, chronicle is past history."<sup>3</sup>

The idealistic historiographer begins with a philosophy and finds exemplifications of it in the world of events. Our ideas are the real facts of history; events are their actualization in space and time. The sources are posterior to history; they are not the stuff out of which history is made, but an imperfect transcript or "residue of history." "First comes history," says Croce, "then chronicle. First comes the living being, then the corpse; and to make history the child of chronicle is the same thing as to make the living be born from the corpse."<sup>4</sup> History is one way of tracing or discovering the purpose and design of the world.

The idealistic historian contends that the process of history should be studied as a whole, for it is a teleological and spiritual organism. He must have a

connected vision of the totality of things, and, as Bosanquet tells us, he must subordinate all the diversified elements to the absolute, so that the parts conform to the whole, which is prior to them. He attempts to fit everything together and give a synoptic view of world history, and thus reveal the intrinsic meaning of human action.

Consequently the idealistic criterion of history, as in philosophy, is one of coherence and consistency. History must have dramatic unity, it must have a beginning, a middle, and an end; it doesn't matter whether the movement is spiral or merely linear. Facts are true if they fit, events are real if they cohere in the general scheme of things and further the process or lend themselves to the intelligible goal of history. In the absence of reliable witnesses the truth or validity of facts can be determined *a priori* from the context in which they find themselves; this is the harmony of facts, as Seignbos would say, or the logical coherence of parts.

#### *Realistic Historiography*

Realistic historiography is descriptive. History is a record of what has actually taken place, a faithful and reliable transcript of the past, given to us in a world of discourse. It deals with a world of the past, of deeds and actions that have ceased to be. Realistic historiography is archeology; it is an attempt to recover or restore that past. The life and vitality are gone; the records are studied to ferret out their secrets. It is all "pick and shovel" scholarship, a study of the annals and chronologies buried in the archives. History is the preservation and mummification of the remembered or memorable past.

These historians study history just as they would pursue truth, to learn exactly what it was. Truth follows facts, facts do not follow theories. They are as objective and impartial as possible; they describe exactly what they find. They have no pet theory, no axe to grind; they let the facts speak for themselves. This is behavioristic history, like behavioristic psychology.

Since there are two basal types of realistic truth, there are two types of realistic historiography, the correspondence or copy theory and the representative theory.<sup>5</sup> The correspondence theory tries to give an accurate and faithful picture of the past by establishing a one-to-one correspondence between what actually happened and what is related. True history is a photographic representation of what once took place. It is camera true. Ranke summed it all up in a sentence, "History has had the office assigned to it of judging the past, of instructing the present for the benefit of the future; this work does not aim at any such high undertaking—it will merely set forth how things actually happened (er will blosß sagen, wie es eigentlich gewesen)"<sup>6</sup>

This naïve view catalogues the sieges and the bat-

tles with the charters and the social reforms without attempting to interpret them. The so-called "academic historians" fall into this category, but the best examples can be found in Chinese histories. The writings of Szema-Thsian which record the annals of China from 2697 to about the first century B.C. and the "Universal Mirror for Rulers" by Szema Kwang written in the 11th century, were continuous streams of narrative without any critical evaluation. At best these compilations are annals and chronicles, and not histories, but "Pseudo-histories," as Croce calls them.

The representative theory tries to give an interpreted account that approximates the objective world of the past. It is not enough to collect and collate sources; mere search in archives and mausoleums yields but meaningless traces on paper and stone; they have to be sifted and arranged, interpreted and evaluated. Their work differs from that of the idealist in that their principle of explanation is not taken to be immanent or *a priori*; the meaning is found in the events as they occurred, and in the effect they have had on subsequent affairs. They do not try to force events into the form or mould of a world-history.

They too have a personal detachment in writing history, but they include only what they take to be significant, for they agree with Voltaire that not everything is worthy of being recorded. From their critical examination of sources they form a complete and continuous account. Niebuhr took this ability to form a whole story from the fragments to be one of the main prerequisites of a historian.<sup>7</sup> This attitude of giving an interpreted account has been made current by Robinson in his *New History* and *Mind in the Making*. This has to be done with every new climate of opinion, for every generation must rewrite history from its own point of view.

#### *Pragmatic or Instrumental Historiography*

The pragmatic historiographer believes in the relativity of values. Nothing is good and true in itself; something becomes true in the process of experience if it works. Truth is not inherent in things, it arrives after they have been put to use. Truth is the intellectual process of verifying a judgment; truth is made when we follow an idea to the practical value to which it leads. Things are true, says William James, in so far as they help us get into satisfactory relationship with other parts of our experience. That which works or succeeds is the pragmatic or instrumental theory of truth.

The pragmatic historian puts history to work; he uses it unconsciously or avowedly, for some purpose or end. This theory of history is instrumental and ancillary to the purpose of the historian. Thus historiography is written to support or prove a thesis; the historians fashion their product into a particular form or scheme because they have an axe to grind. Their

narratives remind one of Froude's picture of history: a child's box of letters with which one could spell as one pleased. One had only to pick out the desired letters, arrange them in the correct manner and ignore those that did not suit one's immediate purpose.<sup>8</sup> This gives us a provincial and opportunistic interpretation directed to some given end, to adorn a tale, point a moral, please a prince, or satisfy a prejudice.

So many of our historians are of this type that it would take a long list to exhaust them. Herodotus explained the misfortune of Xerxes as a divine punishment on the presumption of the Persian king. Polybius was an apologist for Roman success and like Machiavelli narrated events that would be useful to the politicians of his time. Tacitus and Livy were also patriotic historians. Julius Caesar wrote his *Commentaries* with his eye on the political situation at home. Most of the medieval chroniclers were propagandists. St. Augustine's *City of God* was meant as a polemic against paganism and as an apology for Christianity. For Voltaire history was a mirror for magistrates, a storehouse of caveats and rules for the practical politician. Walpole, in his *Memoirs of George II* tried to picture the reign as a warning to posterity. Saint Simon contemplated the entire history of humanity as the progressive amelioration of the proletariat. Napoleon II wrote his *Histoire de Jules Caesar* to recommend Caesarism. These are a few of the outstanding examples.

It is well known that the whole nineteenth century was one of patriotic histories. Thayer condemns the partiality of the Germans in writing histories to glorify their fatherland. Mommsen, von Sybel, and Treitschke were some of the eminent German historians in this group, but the other countries were guilty, too. Froude in England and Michelet in France belong to the same category. Macaulay, Carlyle, Grote and Gibson imposed their prejudices on their material, and in recent times H. G. Wells has done the same. Macaulay wrote his essay on the Puritan Revolution, telling what his own generation could learn from it. Grote wrote his history of Greece as if he were describing the England of his day. Mommsen's glorification of Caesar sounds like an apotheosis of Prussian despotism, and his Punic Wars resemble a conflict between Germany and England.

To what extent these historians were justified in superimposing personal bias on their historical material, whether patriotic propaganda, a materialistic interpretation of history, the glorification or depreciation of great men, does not fall within the scope of this essay. My purpose here is to point out how the facts of history have a chameleon nature in the hands of the pragmatic historians, and take on the color of the writers.

All three types of historiography employ periodiza-

tion of some sort. The idealist uses them to mark the stages in the progressive unfoldment of the implicit idea. Hegel had them follow or correspond to the three stages of the consciousness of freedom. For universal history, there was despotism, democracy or aristocracy, and monarchy. The whole process was divided into smaller triads, usually one to a nation. Germany, for instance, had undergone the three stages of a triad: (1) the Holy Roman Empire up to the time of Charlemagne. (2) The nation broken up into principalities. (3) The synthesis into a monarchy from the time of the Reformation on. Vico also used three stages, theocracy, aristocracy, and democracy and monarchy. Herder employed the four stages of man, infancy (the Orient), boyhood (Egypt and Phoenicia), youth (Greece), manhood and old age (Christianity), but these were for all humanity, which he treated as a single organism, and not for one nation.

The pragmatists are just as fanciful, if not more so. St. Augustine divided the history of the world into six periods, while the followers of Di Flora divided it into three, corresponding to the three persons of the Trinity. Lorenz and Ferrari divided history into cycles comparable to a human generation. Spengler used epochs of 1000 years during which the cultures passed through the four seasons of spring, summer, fall, and winter, or again, each culture had its childhood, youth, manhood, and old age. Dawson also used cycles of 1000 years.

In this respect the idealist and pragmatist are very much alike. Both use history to exemplify some idea or theory: the idealist finds the idea immanent in the records, the pragmatist makes history fit the theory. Both begin with a preconceived idea, the idealist finds the form *a priori* to history, the pragmatist contends that he gets it *a posteriori*.

The realists use the idea of periodicity, too. But the correspondence or copy theory of history is not concerned with periods unless they are clearly and unmistakably contained in the records—which, of course, is hardly ever so. No annals or chronicles contain such ideal divisions. The events thus should be related just as they occurred. The representative historians are justified in the use of historical division as milestones; at least as much so as the other two types. They use them to mark important turns in their explanations, for the periods are useful signposts and ideal divisions which aid the understanding. The periods in themselves, of course, are not to be taken too seriously. They facilitate the writing of history books and the teaching of history in the classroom. They remind one very much of Mark Twain's comments on geography books. He tells us that when he took his first trip in a balloon he discovered that the states were all the same color and not as they were painted on the maps.

These three types of historiography can be summed up by the terms Rationalism, Empiricism, and Instrumentalism. But many of the historiographers are not clear-cut exponents of any one school; often they include some characteristic of the other types of narrative. Niebuhr, for example, attempted to be realistic. He approached the grave task of the historian with a true sense of responsibility. "In laying down the pen," he wrote, "we must be able to say in the sight of God: I have not knowingly nor without earnest investigation written anything which is not true." But his pragmatism was just as pronounced as his representative realism. He said that he would write to "regenerate the young men, to render them capable of great things, to put before them the noble example of antiquity." And Knipfing showed that Niebuhr, impartial as he attempted to be, pictured Philip of Macedon as a Napoleon, and vented upon him the traditional German hate of the Man of Destiny.

Robinson was a realist in so far as he attempted to give an interpreted account and a pragmatist in so far as he wrote for a specific purpose (to cause an intellectual rejuvenation), but that does not impair our classification of historiography. This triadic division is only an ideal classification, and need not be employed as a Procrustean bed to make all historiographies fit. Many historians are eclectics who want to judge as well as bear witness, and their attempts are not any more inconsistent than the systems of the philosophers.

The justification of this classification is based on the general philosophical nature of historiographies as well as on its basal acceptance of a theory of truth. There is a vast difference between the position of

Fichte who believed that history was the kingdom of God, and that of Henry Ford, who said that history was bunk; between the position of Boussuet who took history to be a theodicy and Freeman who thought it was merely the politics of the past; between the position of Ranke, who conceived it as an account of what has actually taken place, and the attitude of certain writers who, as Henry Adams put it, thought they had history in their inkwells. But whether history is of institutions or events, whether one sees in it the hand of God, or only an almanac of accidental contingencies, it is always in terms of value and meaning. Facts and values are inseparable; perhaps values are the facts of history, the real heroes of our narratives. Croce put it aptly when he said that history was always a history of value. And a study of value is philosophy.

<sup>1</sup> Descartes put it aptly in his *Discourse on Method*. "Even the most accurate histories, if they do not exactly misrepresent or exaggerate the value of things in order to render them more worthy of being read, at least omit in them all circumstances which are basest and least notable; and from this fact follows that what is retained is not portrayed as it really is."

<sup>2</sup> *Philosophy of History* (New York: The Colonial Press, 1899).

<sup>3</sup> Benedetto Croce, *On History* (New York, 1921), p. 19.

<sup>4</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 20.

<sup>5</sup> This distinction includes all the schools of realism, Naïve Realism, Critical Realism, Neo-Realism, and New Critical Realism.

<sup>6</sup> Preface to *Histories of the Romance and Teutonic People* (Frankfort, 1824).

<sup>7</sup> "I am a historian, for I can make a complete picture from separate fragments, and I know where the parts are missing and how to fill them up." G. P. Gooch, *History and Historians in the Nineteenth Century* (New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1913), p. 19.

<sup>8</sup> "Science of History," in *Short Studies on Great Subjects*, I (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1908), 1.

## An Experiment in Social Science

BERTON J. BALLARD  
Stanford University, California

Since the beginning, more than twenty-five years ago, the subject known as journalism has been taught as a part of the English curriculum of most high schools. The reason for this is obvious: the popular conception of a journalist is that of a writer. It did not matter, apparently, that he seldom was a good writer. His tool, the typewriter, was proof that he was a writer. Therefore, since writing was the chief business of English departments, the high school student who wanted to train for journalism was given a course in English.

A year ago last summer, however, a daring experiment was outlined and during the past school year

was executed. Working in a class in curriculum in the journalism department at Stanford University, Dr. Wallace Henry Moore decided that he would teach his journalism course in the Palo Alto High School, not so much as a writing course, but rather as a study in social research. Therefore, events, currents of affairs, and happenings within the school and the city were to be the main contents; the expression of this in written form was to be subordinate.

Two things followed from this experiment: (1) The English department and the social studies departments were merged at the end of this year. What will happen during the school year just begun will

be another story. (2) The students of journalism—heretofore, a study in English and writing—learned not only valuable lessons in expression, but experienced also the technique of social research.

By considering their writing as a tool instead of an end, they became craftsmen instead of artists, perhaps, but they came to view language as a means of expressing important facts and thoughts.

The class was divided into groups to investigate several situations in the community. The walls of the school room dissolved before the eager searching of these youngsters. After facts were gathered—not only in notes, but also in diagrams, sketches, and photographs—they were written. The class likewise came to see their work in the school from the social perspective. No longer were they merely trying to be clever or smart. They were looking at their school, their companions, their faculty, and the various organs of their city and county as facts worthy of their careful observation and reporting.

The exact result upon the writing of these students could not be estimated scientifically. Certainly this much can be said. It was as good as any previous work done as a part of the purely English work. Since such things as style and diction are hard to compare from one class to another, it would be safe to say merely that the writing of the members of this class exhibits a firmness, simplicity, and force of expression not ordinarily encountered in secondary schools.

Every line and word of the write-ups that these students typed was their own.

For the teacher of the social sciences, this experiment has important consequences. The students grouped themselves into committees of various sizes to study their school and their city. They studied books as a background; they also learned sources of information besides books, such as the records of the school, the municipality, the courts, and the county. They actually visited the places they were writing about. Social phenomena became more than a mere string of words—it shaped itself for them into the form of concrete events, men, and things. Writing about these became a means of conveying accurate and truthful information.

It would be inappropriate to discuss all of the various projects and the means used in gathering information. It should be added that nothing in the way of English training was sacrificed by this course; its significance was merely re-orientated toward the expression of the truths, the discoveries, and the facts that these students had gathered in their social adventures in Palo Alto.

The group of four who undertook "The Traffic Control Project" was from the elementary journal-

ism course taught by Dr. Moore. The facts were gathered first hand for this report: photographs of automobile accidents, parking, and danger spots were taken by the students themselves. When photographs or description could not make the situation clear, the students made sketches. At the conclusion of their investigation they appeared in the local traffic court, presented their findings, and were roundly congratulated by the judge and other officials of the court.

The work was dedicated to the future driver in an attempt "to discover how accidents and deaths and even minor casualties may be prevented." The first section of the report was to debunk the notion that the chief causes of accidents by motorists was due merely to the drunken or reckless driver—menacing as they may be.

Instead there was the bicyclist who until recently in Palo Alto did not need a light at night. Then, too, there was the menace of the pedestrian who walked along the highway on the wrong side, or who decided to cross the street at the wrong time. Besides there were the children who would have to play in the street, in certain districts, because of the lack of playgrounds.

In another section of the report, the group summarized the local and state traffic laws as to speed, parking, right of way, etc. They told of what to do in emergencies, upon turning, parking, passing, signaling, and stopping.

They interviewed traffic policemen, watched at corners while the policeman worked, and photographed him in action when there were violations of laws and ordinances.

The remainder of the book was a statistical analysis of the accidents in Palo Alto, their time, their location, the type of vehicle involved, the age of those implicated, their sex, what pedestrians were doing, the manner of the collision, what the drivers were doing, the condition of the weather, the signals, and the daylight. They looked into the records to discover the condition of the driver, the condition of the road, that of the pedestrian, the road surface, and many other aspects of the problem.

In other words the class came into close contact with the factors of an important social situation. They also became aware of a new slant upon the sources, collection, and dissemination of news. They came to regard the newspaper not merely as a vehicle of self-expression, but as a responsible organ for the spreading of valuable information. By this device they were able to see social phenomena in sharp focus. By it too, I am convinced, their writing gained much in power.

# Bread and Barter

## A Summary of the Self-Help Movement

JAMES L. SMITH

*Abrens Trade School, Louisville, Kentucky*

Barter associations—groups of individuals associating themselves for the purpose of gaining mutual benefit through the direct exchange of goods and services—were established in practically every part of the country during the depression. Primarily a self-help movement among the unemployed, growing spontaneously from the most fundamental needs of human beings—food, clothing, and shelter—the story of the growth of the movement is as much human as it is economic, for the destitution and want responsible for most of the groups were real.

The first of two basic philosophies to be found in the operation of these projects may be summarized, "Work for products or scrip-credit. Buy produce to the limit of credit or scrip." The other, "Work for a specified period. Draw out enough for needs." Stating it differently, (1) "From each according to opportunity for the use of his ability. To each according to his wages"; and (2) "From each according to his ability. To each according to his needs."

This distinction is important, as the methods used in distributing goods to members, i.e., whether according to services performed or to need, had a considerable influence upon the organization, methods, and practices of the groups. Those in which remuneration was on the basis of services performed or goods brought in, usually charged a membership fee and generally had a regular staff of paid workers, while those operating on the basis of "need" charged no fees and had no paid officers or employees.

The primary function of a barter association, including various forms of organized effort involving systematic exchange of goods and services and the division of labor in productive enterprises, was to facilitate the exchange of a sufficient quantity of surplus commodities held by unemployed persons to enable them to meet day-to-day needs.

The principal functions of barter groups consisted of, first, supplying information for the making of private barter arrangements; second, direct handling of goods, either in barter stores, supply houses or commissaries; and third, production for barter.

The substitution of self-help for relief or charity; the utilization of barter and payment for labor in kind for the ordinary processes of purchase and payment with money or credit; and the use of scrip for money in those transactions requiring some medium of exchange were three common features of these enterprises.

Many of the organizations performed incidental services not in the nature of barter. First, serving as employment agencies; second, collecting and distributing donations; third, providing social contacts, and experience in self-government and community life. However, in their general objective—creating a livelihood for groups of unemployed through direct exchange of goods and services—they were alike.

A number of factors combined to limit the operations of the exchanges: they were, as a rule, set up to serve a temporary purpose; the financial position of the members was most precarious; there was a tendency toward competition with established business enterprises, particularly retailers; rationing was necessary in order to conserve the goods available for distribution; providing living quarters for members was a problem which few associations solved; practically all of the projects failed to be truly self-supporting, depending upon some source of assistance, which in the last analysis, supplied the indispensable finances.

The fight waged against the movement by the local Communist organizations (Unemployed Councils) was particularly bitter. The Communist generally, and some of the Socialists, oppose barter on two grounds: that it enables the ruling class, organized as the State, to rid itself of its obligation to the unemployed; and inevitably lowers the worker's standard of living.

Although sympathetic with the aims of the self-help groups, organized labor looked upon them with some disquiet, fearful that they might be used, consciously or unconsciously, to break down local standards of wages and working conditions.

The self-help movement, viewed as anything other

than an emergency measure to provide for that margin of labor and the products of industry, which, for one reason or another, cannot be exchanged by the normal methods for money or credit, has obvious limitations. Successful in relieving absolute destitution, it is far from being able to provide an adequate standard of living, having very little control over,

or contact with, the facilities for large scale production and distribution.

The final test is whether or not the movement will hasten or delay an intelligent social approach to the outstanding problem of modern industrialism—at once peculiar to industry and chronic—unemployment.

## Teach Students About Themselves

STANLEY E. DIMOND

*Division of Instruction, Detroit, Michigan*

### I

The general conception of social science as "the science of living together in human society"<sup>1</sup> acknowledges that the materials for this science are man and his environment. *The Conclusions and Recommendations* of the Commission on the Social Studies states that, "The main function of the social sciences is the acquisition of accurate knowledge of, and informed insight into, man and society."<sup>2</sup> But in the social studies curriculum are we teaching enough about man? History, civics, geography, economics, and problem courses are teaching much of man in his relationships with other men, but where can the normal student in the average high school discover important facts about himself? If a pupil should ask why he blushed, or why his father was irritable when he was unemployed, or why a teacher, peevish yesterday was friendly today—to what high school course could he turn for an answer? To any adolescent many of these personal questions have a vital, immediate interest.

High school social studies teachers have neglected a challenge and a fundamental duty by failing to teach the individual more about himself. In some classrooms the social studies have been a mere study of past events, or a surface examination of present institutions with their attendant troubles. Some teachers—and writers of texts—have failed to recognize that society is composed of individual human beings and that pupils need to know how these humans react. Students have important and perturbing problems which they need to understand. Yet rare is the teacher who finds time to study these interesting matters. The social studies curriculum should no longer neglect this fertile field. Adolescents should be taught about themselves.

There is a science which will help teach many of these facts. Immature, but useful, this science is psy-

chology. In the past, psychology has served as a sieve through which have been strained our courses of study, our textbooks, and our methods of teaching, in order that only the best might reach our pupils. This use of psychology should undoubtedly continue. But we need also to incorporate the findings of psychology into our courses of study, that every student may better achieve the goal of the Greek maxim, "Know thyself." To accomplish this purpose, it is not necessary at the present time to offer a "psychology" course in the high school. It is worthy of note, however, that, in one study, the inclusion of psychology as a part of the social studies department was approved by more than fifty per cent of those persons surveyed.<sup>3</sup> Still, much good could be accomplished by a synthesis of established courses with the facts of psychology.

History needs to become more personal. Historical characters need to be examined for evidences of typical human traits. Revolutions, wars, and migrations need more and more to be studied from the viewpoint of human motivation. Many recent historical biographies have held interest because they have combined historical scholarship with psychology, albeit of a pseudo-type. The alert and progressive teacher needs to ponder this technique for the classroom. Can we at many points fuse our courses in social science with a discussion of elementary psychology to the advantage of our pupils? To such a possible combination this paper endeavors to point the way.

### II

In the writer's own classes during three semesters such a synthesis of psychology with economics proved advantageous. In addition to teaching the facts of human behavior, psychology illuminated and made practical much of the academic theory of the usual economics course. Inasmuch as human wants are the

foundation for the study of economics, the origin of human motives, the causes of thwarting, and the development of mental mechanisms are easily taught as part of an introductory unit to the high school economics course. As one writer sees it,

Human wants are responsible for much in this world. If we did not have wants . . . there would be no struggle for existence; no failures and no successes; no joys and sorrows. . . . For better or for worse, every human being is a "bundle of wants."<sup>4</sup>

Similarly, another author states, "The whole subject [economics] is concerned with human wants and the problem of satisfying them."<sup>5</sup> The desires for food, shelter, clothing, radios, automobiles—and a multitude of other conflicting wants—are source material for the science of economics.

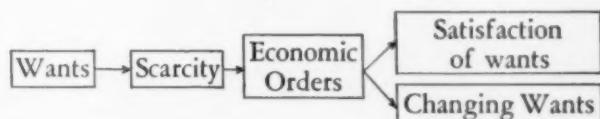
In view of this fundamental aspect of the human wants, it would seem that they should occupy an important position in high school textbooks. Surely here is one place where our pupils can discover something about themselves. But, unfortunately, the textbooks give scant attention to the subject. A cursory examination of the indexes of four widely used high school textbooks reveals that the average number of references to human wants is one and one-half. Even if we include the terms "desire" and "demand," which are closely related to "human wants," the average is only eight references. It seems a just conclusion, and one which many economics teachers will sustain, that the subject of human wants is mentioned but not discussed in high school economics books.

By this neglect of psychological aspects, the economics course disregards a number of vital problems. For example, in discussions of current social orders, some writers and many laymen claim that the capitalistic system is based on an "instinct of acquisition." Similarly, communism and socialism supposedly depend for their justification upon a "social instinct." Yet, psychologists and sociologists have largely discarded the concept of instinct as inaccurate. Therefore, is it not proper to teach in our secondary schools that the existence of such instincts is no longer considered a tenable theory? Again, the attitudes of many members of Congress on important questions (the tariff, centralized banking, neutrality, for instance) seem to be the result of mental mechanisms of rationalization, projection, or even phantasy, rather than of objective deliberation upon economic facts. The real problem in consumer education frequently involves recognition of the psychological theory of compensation. The effort to "keep up with the Joneses" is a common example. Other illustrations will occur to the reader if the personality problems involved in strikes, arbitration, specialization, or shorter working hours are seriously considered. A

course in economics is filled with such opportunities for psychological study.

In view of these intimate relationships, it is valuable to notice the mutual sources of economics and psychology. A few diagrams will illustrate. *Diagram A* depicts the science of economics as described by the orthodox textbooks used in most secondary schools.

*Diagram A*

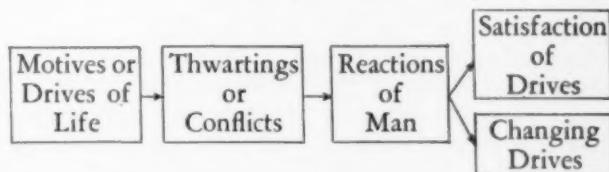


Stated simply, this diagram shows that when human wants could not be satisfied because of the factor of scarcity, man worked under and developed various economic orders to aid in satisfying these wants. In view of the wide use of the word "scarcity" in our present political controversies, it probably is well to remind the reader that

The reason why men continually work and struggle to get a living is that most of the things which they desire are not sufficiently abundant for all without this effort. That is, as the economist puts it, most desired things are scarce in relation to the need for them.<sup>6</sup>

*Diagram B* pictures a view of psychology based upon the results of motivation.

*Diagram B*

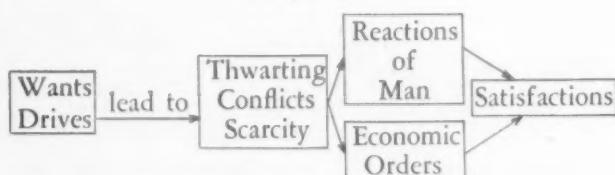


Expressed briefly, this diagram, reveals that the motives of life when thwarted lead any individual to reactions which will tend to satisfy or change these drives.

But the intelligent student realizes that the human wants of economics are the motives or "drives of life" of psychology. As Dickinson has said, "The human want is a central unit for both sciences; one might say that both are built around it."<sup>7</sup> Similarly, Woodworth states, "Motives range from the primitive or primal, like hunger, to the very advanced, such as zeal for a cause";<sup>8</sup> and again, "The field of human motives is as broad as the world that man can deal with and understand."<sup>9</sup> After all, the drives of Woodworth, the *elan vital* of Bergson, the libido of Freud, the preparatory and consummatory reactions of Sherrington, the instincts of McDougall and the earlier social psychologists—all these in function are

explanations of human wants. Also, it is demonstrable that scarcity is only another view of thwarting and conflict. Except for terminology both are saying that man cannot have everything he wants. Accordingly, it is possible to combine these two charts and show the mutual relationship of psychology and economics as in *Diagram C*.

*Diagram C*



For a long time we have taught that human wants when frustrated have led to various types of work under changing economic orders. With great care and much effort we have expounded the details of the present economic order. Since the same human wants, the same elements of conflict lead to varied reactions in human beings, why not teach these facts of human nature too? It is because of this inter-relationship that psychology can be taught with benefit in the economics course.

### III

With this purpose in mind—to assist students to understand some phases of their own life—the following introduction to a high school course in economics was created. The introduction consists of five topics which, inducing the pupil to think of himself, progress to the point where he sees himself as part of an economic order. At the same time an understanding of some of the fundamental psychological mechanisms is obtained. Students, through proper learning exercises, receive an opportunity to know and evaluate their fundamental human needs, to see how these needs when thwarted cause them to become angry, to make excuses, and to daydream. At the same time they recognize the fact that society has passed gradually through a series of industrial stages or orders that men might make a better living and thus more nearly satisfy their wants. The five topics are:

- Topic I. What Things Do You Need and Want in Life?
- Topic II. What Equipment Did Nature Give You to Get These Things?
- Topic III. Why Cannot You Have All the Things You Want?
- Topic IV. What Happens to You When You Do Not Get What You Want?
- Topic V. What Happens to Society When People Do Not Get What They Want?

While normally a discussion of these topics will extend over a period of ten days, they can easily be contracted or amplified according to conditions. In such a study, the important introductory facts to an understanding of the common forms of human behavior and of the human wants of economics are readily mastered. An additional survey of the teaching involved may prove helpful.

### TOPIC I. WHAT THINGS DO YOU NEED AND WANT IN LIFE?

#### *The Problem*

One of the chief characteristics of human beings seems to be that they want various things. Mickey Cochrane, Helen Wills Moody, Mussolini—all appear to have desires. You have your wants, too. What are they?

#### *The Learning Exercise*

Prepare a list of the things you want in life. Include your immediate desires and your wants for the more distant future.

#### *The Learning Product*

##### The Basic Human Wants or Needs<sup>10</sup>

- A. Health
  - 1. Air
  - 2. Light
  - 3. Warmth
  - 4. Food
  - 5. Water
  - 6. Sleep
- B. Psychological
  - 1. Play
  - 2. Work
  - 3. Order
- C. Social
  - 1. Social Recognition
  - 2. Service

### TOPIC II. WHAT EQUIPMENT DID NATURE GIVE YOU TO GET THESE THINGS?

#### *The Problem*

Automobiles today are sold with "standard equipment." The term is a common one. Nature gave each of us certain equipment too. Can you decide what your "standard equipment" is?

#### *The Learning Exercise*

Prepare another list to show what equipment you were given at birth that you might obtain the things you have listed as your wants in life.

*The Learning Product*

## Man's Native Equipment

## A. Organs of

1. Sight
2. Hearing
3. Breathing
4. Smell
5. Speech
6. Taste
7. Touch
8. Digestion

## B. Systems

1. Circulatory
2. Nervous
3. Ductless
4. Skeletal
5. Muscular

## C. Functions

Any normal work of the organs or of the systems

## TOPIC III. WHY CANNOT YOU HAVE ALL THE THINGS YOU WANT?

*The Problem*

Our dreams, desires, and wishes do not always come true. Parents sometimes tell sons and daughters that they cannot go to a movie. Why cannot people have all the things they desire?

*The Learning Exercise*

From your textbook or the assigned books in the library read the sections on "Scarcity," and understand Carver's idea of the threefold struggle resulting from scarcity. Be able to illustrate each type of struggle from your experience.

*The Learning Product*The Causes of Scarcity and Thwarting<sup>11</sup>

- A. Struggle of Man Against Nature
- B. Struggle of Man Against Man
- C. Struggle of Man Against Himself  
(Conflict of Desires)

## TOPIC IV. WHAT HAPPENS TO YOU WHEN YOU DO NOT GET WHAT YOU WANT?

*The Problem*

When people do not get what they desire a great diversity of reactions take place. What did the lady who missed the street car do? What happened in the locker room after our football team lost? What do people do when they do not get what they want?

*The Learning Exercise*

From books, plays, magazines, movies, or personal

experiences bring to class examples of what people do when they do not get what they want.

*The Learning Product*The Effects of Thwarting Upon an Individual<sup>12</sup>

## A. Emotions

1. Impatience
2. Anger
3. Fear
4. Worry
5. Sorrow

B. Adjustments<sup>13</sup>

1. Making excuses (Rationalization)
2. Sour Grapes (Rationalization)
3. Pollyanna (Rationalization)
4. Blaming Others (Projection)
5. Day-dreams (Phantasy)
6. Dr. Jekyll and Mr. Hyde (Dissociation)
7. Feelings of Weakness (Inferiority Complex)
8. Substitutions (Compensation)
9. Using Intelligence

## C. Realization of Wants

## TOPIC V. WHAT HAPPENS TO SOCIETY WHEN PEOPLE DO NOT GET WHAT THEY WANT?

*The Problem*

Over long periods of time society makes adjustments to permit more people to satisfy their wants. A reference to "horse-and-buggy days" reminds us of one change that has been accomplished. What are the great changes by which society has evolved a better way to satisfy wants?

*The Learning Exercise*

Read in your textbook or in the library the sections on "Changes in Industrial Orders." Then write a diary or imaginary letter showing how you would have lived in any particular age, or how you would have felt if people had suggested improving your industrial order.

*The Learning Product*The Effects of Scarcity on the Manner in Which People Have Worked Together<sup>14</sup>

- A. Hunting and Fishing Stage
- B. Pastoral or Nomadic Stage
- C. Handicraft or Trades and Commerce Stage
- D. Agricultural Stage
- E. Industrial Stage

## IV

From personal experience in introducing the economics course in this manner, the writer has satisfied

himself that students in their discussions gain certain fundamental ideas and attitudes which are very difficult to teach in the usual introductions. A few examples of these learning products are:

1. Industrial life should change to satisfy better our needs.
2. Human beings cannot have all the things they want; they must choose wisely and adjust intelligently.
3. Patterns of conduct are easily acquired when one is thwarted; they frequently become habits of making excuses, blaming others, day-dreaming, or losing one's temper.

In addition to these desirable products, from the educator's viewpoint there are other advantages in this type of introduction. Briefly, they are these:

1. The student learns something about himself.
2. Each pupil feels that he is a part of the course. His standard equipment, his reactions, his desires are being considered.
3. The growth of industrial orders appears as a perfectly natural evolution.
4. Throughout the remainder of the course the explanation and interpretation of controversial economic questions is greatly simplified. The examination of public questions in the light of economic truths plus psychological mental patterns is of inestimable value. A consideration of the question, "When are our statesmen intelligent and when are they 'making excuses'?" adds zest to a class discussion.
5. The complexity of our present industrial order is a natural, understandable result of man's incessant effort to satisfy his wants.
6. Each pupil understands a few psychological habit patterns, to aid him in self-analysis and thus in self-government.
7. A rational interpretation of life on the basis of satisfaction of wants gives direction to the lives of many adolescents.
8. A step in the synthesis of knowledge at the secondary school level is achieved.

Two criticisms, at least, seem apparent. First, the school of economics which has questioned the theory of scarcity might censure this introduction. Yet, from a survey of the high school texts it is necessary to conclude that the authors in the secondary field base their writings on a concept of scarcity. An interpretation of the apparent conflict between an "economy of scarcity" and an "economy of abundance" is not the

purpose of this paper. However, recognition that abundance connotes great production with faulty distribution may be a more valuable approach for high school students than relinquishment of the idea of scarcity.

Second, it may be possible that some adolescents are harmed by knowing too much about their mental reactions. This criticism is worthy of careful consideration. Little attempt has been made to teach mental hygiene directly in the secondary school and further exploration in this field is desirable. In the experimental classes some control of tempers, avoidance of excuses, and facing of reality can be traced to the introduction described. At the same time, there appears to have been no increase in the number or pressure of conflicts upon any student.

Other objections may arise concerning teaching technique or organization, although no effort has been made to describe the informal class procedures that were employed. However, these are details. The essential point is that somewhere in the social studies curriculum an effort should be made to teach students about themselves. The writer feels this need is pertinent to the subject matter of the social studies and should become an obligation to progressive teachers. The interest aroused among the students in discussions of these five topics assures him that any teacher eager to pioneer in this field will be amply rewarded.

<sup>1</sup> Henry P. Fairchild, *Elements of Social Science* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1924), p. 7.

<sup>2</sup> *Conclusions and Recommendations of the Commission on the Social Studies* (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1934), p. 7.

<sup>3</sup> Louis A. Pechstein, and J. A. Broxsen, "The Determination of a Course in Psychology for the High School," *School Review* (May, 1933), p. 361.

<sup>4</sup> Charles R. Fay, *Elements of Economics* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1931), p. 29.

<sup>5</sup> C. C. Jansen, and O. W. Stephenson, *Everyday Economics* (New York: Silver Burdett Company, 1931), p. 29.

<sup>6</sup> H. L. Lutz, E. W. Foote, and B. F. Stanton, *A New Introduction to Economics* (Evanston: Row, Peterson Company, 1933), p. 9.

<sup>7</sup> Z. C. Dickinson, *Economic Motives* (Cambridge: Harvard Press, 1922), p. 14.

<sup>8</sup> R. S. Woodworth, *Dynamic Psychology* (New York: Columbia University Press, 1918), p. 85.

<sup>9</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 76.

<sup>10</sup> This outline is adapted from W. Clark Trow, *Educational Psychology* (New York: Houghton, Mifflin Company, 1931), pp. 21-40.

<sup>11</sup> H. L. Lutz, E. W. Foote, and B. F. Stanton, *A New Introduction to Economics*, p. 14.

<sup>12</sup> This outline is adapted from W. Clark Trow, *Educational Psychology*, pp. 45-96.

<sup>13</sup> With secondary school pupils the writer has used the expressions in the first column with success. The parenthetical terms are included here to indicate the psychological meanings.

<sup>14</sup> Charles R. Fay, *Elements of Economics*, p. 7.

# News and Comment

MORRIS WOLF

*Head, Social Studies Department, Girard College, Philadelphia*

## THE GENERAL COURSE

Serious criticism of the traditional secondary school curriculum is increasing. The voices thus raised evidently herald a revolution which is to be effected by forces now working upon the high school. Chief, perhaps, among these forces are: the belief in this country that young people should remain in school, the fact that today more than four-fifths of the children who complete the elementary school course become enrolled in high schools, and the growing conviction that the traditional curriculum does not fit the present needs of most of the youth who are pouring through the entrance gates of the secondary school.

Professor Judd of the University of Chicago, writing on "What Is General Education" in the *Bulletin* of the Department of Secondary School Principals of the NEA for October 1937, calls the traditional high-school curriculum, the so-called liberal curriculum, a relic of the European system of education for the upper classes and a pre-professional curriculum for those entering the priesthood, law, medicine, or teaching. He suggests a program of general education for the secondary schools of America which supplies an answer to Mr. H. G. Wells' question at Nottingham which was quoted in this department last month: "What is the framework of conceptions about reality and about obligations into which the rest of their [the younger generation] mental existence will have to be fitted?" Dr. Judd's general course would include "first, certain general courses needed by all members of a modern democratic society—a compact review of the sciences, natural and social; a course or series of courses on the duties of a member of a community; a course or series of courses in the literature which records the experiences and ideals of the race; and a course in social psychology describing individuals and the place of individuals in the social order. The curriculum should include, second, vocational education, or the cultivation of the skills and techniques of operation necessary in the trades and the professions."

"General education and vocational education are not antagonistic," since both lend themselves to the cultivation of the human mind. "There are a num-

ber of levels in both general education and vocational education . . . but the lower levels should not be narrowly vocational. General education, or education for participation in civilized thinking, is quite as essential for those who attend secondary schools for a year or two as for those who go from these schools to institutions of higher education. . . ."

The shortcomings of the traditional curriculum in meeting present needs are also stressed by Professor H. R. Douglass in his recent report to the American Youth Commission of the American Council on Education (see *THE SOCIAL STUDIES* for May 1937, "News and Comment"). In this report, *Secondary Education for Youth in Modern America*, the objectives of secondary education, the needs of youth today, and the trends in modern American life are examined by Professor Douglass as a basis for a program of universal secondary education. Like Dr. Judd, he does not believe that the liberal curriculum was intended for the "great mass of non-scholarly youth" because it is now too detached from the actual life of the times. He believes that it is essential for us to try out new kinds of schools and curriculums. Such experiments and trials will help us to find the types of education which are suited to the mass of youth today.

## SEMANTICS

In planning new curriculums, like those suggested by Professors Judd and Douglass, a major rôle is generally assigned to the social studies. These studies, however, continue to bewilder the mind, stirring men to partisan division on social questions like the partisan division of men when physical science a few centuries ago was acquiring a new foundation upon mathematics and the scientific method. Has social science yet found a similar foundation? Whatever it may be, it is true that language throws obstacles in the path of search. Philosophers have long recognized the difficulties laid by language in the way of seekers after knowledge. Stuart Chase has turned with enthusiasm to the problem. His articles on "The Tyranny of Words," in *Harper's Magazine* for November 1937, declares that we need a science of semantics, a science of communication through language, to clear away the obstructions to scientific inquiry in social

science which language intrudes. In two later articles he will describe how the obstructions to free communication which words create, hamper economics and political thinking. It is interesting, with Mr. Chase's remarks in mind, to read in this issue of *Harper's* such articles as Chester T. Crowell's "Our Tax Jungle" and Frederick Lewis Allen's "One Day in History," articles which do not neglect the "referents" of Mr. Chase—objects or situations in the real world to which names and words refer—and to read Genevieve Parkhurst's "Shall Marriage Be Subsidized?" which reveals the common disregard of referents in popular thinking about the marriage problem; also Abram L. Harris's "The Economics of the Founding Fathers," which reveals the absence of referents in a day when *a priori* reasoning was customary.

#### A SERVICE FOR STUDENT GOVERNMENT

It's a far cry from the birch rod to the student court, but with the increasing democratization of the educational system within the past few decades has come the realization that students, especially those in the secondary schools, are quite capable of assuming responsibility in conducting many phases of the government of their schools.

As a direct result of the new emphasis on training in character and citizenship through student participation in the management of school affairs, the National Association of Student Officers was started in 1930 by Superintendent Willis A. Sutton of Atlanta, Georgia, who was at that time president of the National Education Association. The purpose of this group is to serve as a clearing house for the exchange of ideas and information among schools which are carrying on systems of coöperative student government. NASO functions under the guidance of the Department of Secondary School Principals of the National Education Association.

That the plan conceived by Dr. Sutton was a sound one is indicated by the fact that NASO now has a membership of over one thousand student councils and other forms of self government organizations which represent a total of over half a million students. Student councils and other forms of self government organizations of secondary schools may affiliate with NASO by paying an annual membership fee of \$1.50 and sending a copy of their constitution which outlines the system of student participation in the government of their school. If there is no written constitution a short and concise statement describing the program of self government which the school has developed should be sent instead of the constitution.

The services of NASO to its members this year consist of three copies of each number of the monthly magazine, *Student Life*, which is the official periodi-

cal carrying information on student government and related activities; a packet of material on student government which sells for fifty cents to non-members; a report on the annual convention of student government officers held at Detroit during the summer meeting of the National Education Association; a bibliography on student government; and a copy of a survey of student participation in school government and control in eighty-one typical high schools. Address the Executive Secretary, National Association of Student Officers, 5835 Kimbark Ave., Chicago, Ill.

#### CULTURAL OLYMPICS

The success of the first Cultural Olympics last year makes possible an expanded program for 1937-1938. Their purpose "is to encourage a large number of American citizens, both young and old, to engage in some form of cultural pursuit as a leisure time activity," on a strictly amateur or avocational level.

Cultural Olympics recognize no difference among participants and offer a four-fold program which opens the way for many kinds of artistic expression and cultural experiences. This program includes (1) music, both vocal and instrumental; (2) graphic and plastic arts and crafts of many kinds; (3) speech and literature, and (4) the dance.

People of all ages may participate, and schools and social service institutions are invited to enroll as members. For the year 1937-1938 the territorial limits for participants have been expanded to include Pennsylvania, New Jersey, Delaware and Maryland. Events in the four fields have been planned for every month from October to May. Dr. Frederick C. Gruber, Blanchard Hall, University of Pennsylvania, continues as director of Cultural Olympics.

#### PROFESSOR KILPATRICK'S PAGE

"Professor Kilpatrick's Page" was introduced as a regular feature in the October 1937 issue of *The Social Frontier*. In this issue he used the Sino-Japanese clash as an example of a wider evil, intellectual segregation or avoidance of free inter-communication of ideas with the rest of the world. The reader will gather that groups of our own population are also practicing intellectual isolation which is likely to bear evil fruits.

#### FOREIGN AFFAIRS

The fact that Professor Kilpatrick drew his text from the war in China indicates the wide interest in the unhappy situation in the Far East. *Asia* for November 1937 includes a special thirty page section on "The War in China." The issues, from the standpoint of China, Japan, and neutral nations are described, and the various portents prefigured by the struggle are presented.

In *Events* for October 1937 Charles A. Beard, William E. Lingelbach, Preston Slosson, J. Salwyn Schapiro, Sidney B. Fay and others discuss the situation in the Far East and in Europe. *Current History* for the same month presents a comprehensive account of the Sino-Japanese conflict, including nine pages of "notes and documents relative to the Sino-Japanese" affair. There appears also in this issue of the magazine the third article of the series on the military strength of European nations, this one dealing with France and her allies. Other articles study the British policies relating to Spain, and the existing dictatorships in South America.

Emil Ludwig, writing in *Forum* for October 1937, voices his frank opinion of "The Two Dictators," Mussolini and Hitler. His respect for Mussolini the man and worker is as evident as his small regard for Hitler, "a neurotic idler." Hitler, he says, wants a war for victory. "Mussolini, however, who is not a mystic but a diplomat, will draw his profit out of Hitler's war." Hitler, therefore, and not Mussolini, will end like Napoleon III.

#### LIBERTY AND SECURITY

The problem of preserving both liberty and security continues to challenge thinkers. In this department attention was drawn last month to former President Hoover's indictment of the present administration as sacrificing liberty for economic security. In the October 1937 issue of *Survey Graphic* Harold J. Laski studies the problem in the first of two articles on "Liberty in an Insecure World." Since the World War, he points out, democracy has been threatened, freedom has declined, and insecurity has spread, with the result that the growing desire for security has lessened the chances for freedom in the world today. In the face of international anarchy, "the supreme need of our times is cosmopolitan law-breaking."

The conflict of liberty and security, Professor Laski holds, is the result of a basic inconsistency in the social structure, the irreconcilability of political democracy and economic capitalism. Within nations, industrial expansion brought a new class to power which established capitalistic democracy and gave workers the privilege of voting whereby they could "exact concessions of material well-being from the owners of the instruments of production." With the aid of labor's vote the capitalists of industry took over the social control formerly exercised by the landed aristocracy. In the twentieth century, however, the capitalist began to find that further advances in social well-being for the many endangered the power of the owners of capital to compete in the world's markets. Capitalism "either had to give way before the power of numbers seeking the democratic ownership and control of the means of production,

or it had to move to the suppression of democracy as a principle of life incompatible with its own essence." This occurred in countries like Germany and Italy where democracy had few roots, but a similar fate, Professor Laski believes, is not inconceivable in nations where democracy is deeply rooted.

#### FREEDOM AND EDUCATION

The president of Wesleyan University, James L. McConaughy, spoke on this subject before the Williamstown Conference last summer. His address was printed in *School and Society* for September 25, 1937, under the title, "Education in a Democracy." Dr. McConaughy asked three questions: "How much freedom do we have in American education? How much do we want? How do we use our educational freedom?"

In answer to the first he pointed out that we limit freedom both in freedom of educational opportunity and in educational practice, since the rural child, the poor child, the Negro, and the Jew do not have the same educational opportunities as the urban child, the well-to-do child, the white child and the Gentile. The teacher himself is usually made to conform strictly to local standards, while the administrator is often under political pressure.

In answer to the second question he pointed to various state prohibitions on the teaching of various matters, to religious restrictions in some schools, and so forth. In answer to the third he stated that the objective of free schools in a democracy is apt to be vaguer than in a dictatorship. "The danger of training in freedom is that the individual stresses freedom 'from,' not freedom 'for.'" The great need in a democracy is for citizens who use freedom not merely to pursue their own goals but to achieve the best interests of society.

#### WHAT PRICE GOLD?

John T. Flynn, in "Gold and Your Investments," the leading article in the November 1937 number of *Scribner's Magazine*, stresses the point that no one really knows the solution to the monetary problem of the United States, but he is willing to offer a plan for attack upon it. He reviews the reasons for the adoption of President Roosevelt's gold policy and contrasts it with British policy. Mr. Roosevelt's experiment did not yield the results hoped for, and inflationary dangers are now evident. It is necessary, therefore, says Mr. Flynn, to begin to get back to economic safety by abandoning the policy of buying gold. Impound the gold now in the possession of the government, halt gold purchases by the government, and allow gold to find its own price level in the free-gold market. This action will lay the menace of inflation and probably be the least costly way for the nation to get back to a saner monetary system.

Older high-school students will not find most of Mr. Flynn's article too difficult to understand.

#### FARMER BROWN

The change in life on the farm is well described in *Fortune* for October 1937, in the illustrated article, "Ten Billion Dollars Cash." That sum will be the cash income of farmers this year. The life of Farmer Brown, who typifies the American farmer, is being transformed by electric power, the radio, the automobile and the concrete highway, urbanized country stores, metropolitan newspapers and journals, and electric appliances for household and farm. The school is doing much to open the eyes of Farmer Brown's children to the possibilities which technological developments are making available for farm living. These ideas, thanks to the children, are becoming part of the farm ways of their father and mother.

High-school students who are studying the farm problem will be attracted to this popularly written study of the farmer, 1937 style.

#### UNEMPLOYMENT IN 1937

For three months *Fortune* studied eleven representative communities and reports upon it in full, with many illustrations, in the October 1937 issue. The following questions are discussed at length. They are summarized as follows:

1. Are the reliefers "bums"? No. Seventy per cent of them had worked at one job for at least five years.
2. Have they had much education? No. Only a handful had finished high school or college.
3. Did industry drop them because they could not do their jobs? No.
4. Did they ask for too much help? No.
5. Has industry taken many of them back since 1935? Yes, almost half.
6. Is there a shortage of skilled labor? Yes.
7. Is there an abundance of unskilled labor available to industry that is not being bid away by WPA? Yes. The depression has not given the younger generation the opportunity to acquire skills.
8. Are those remaining on relief "marginal men" or men unfit for employment by lack of skill, old age, or disability? Yes.
9. Are these "marginal men" unemployable? The unskilled, no; the aged and disabled, probably yes.
10. Is the WPA spoiling them and wasting the taxpayers' money? No.
11. Are the local communities doing as good a job of giving direct relief to these un-

employables as the federal government did two years ago? No.

How many people will be surprised at these findings?

#### "OF CABBAGES AND KINGS"

Students in several of the social studies fields will be interested in articles describing developments in manufacturing and invention. Three October 1937 issues of periodicals carry illustrated accounts of phases of the paper industry. Dard Hunter, in *Natural History*, reviews "The Story of Paper," an historical account of man's "passport from savagery to civilization." In *Fortune* appears the first of two surveys of the modern paper industry in the United States. The "Economics of Paper" makes a general survey of the industry, leaving specific problems for discussion in the succeeding article. Under the title, "King Cotton Shares His Throne," Mr. Marc A. Rose, editor of *Business Week*, writes in *Scribner's Magazine* about the growth of the pulpwood industry in the South and its revolutionizing effects there.

The leading article in the October 1937 number of *The National Geographic Magazine* is F. B. Colton's "The Miracle of Talking by Telephone." It is a forty page description, in word and picture, of the workings of the telephone.

One of the fascinating developments in modern industry is the invention and use of new forms of glass. In *Harper's Magazine* for November 1937 George Russell Harrison describes these developments under the title, "More Precious Than Rubies."

#### MAKING THE CONSTITUTION

Dr. H. L. Donovan, president of the Eastern Kentucky State Teachers College, contributed to *The Journal of the NEA* for October 1937 a sixteen-page feature useful in the celebration of the anniversary of the Constitution. The topics presented are:

1. The Colonies Face a Crisis
2. Makers of the Constitution
3. The Constitutional Convention Convenes
4. Proposed Plans
5. Great Compromises
6. The Work Completed
7. The Fight for Adoption
8. The Amendments
9. The Constitution in the Life of Today
10. Suggestions for Use

#### PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT'S REORGANIZATION PLAN

*The Congressional Digest* for October 1937 is devoted to the President's reorganization plan. The plan is described, past attempts at reorganization are reviewed, and arguments are presented, pro and con, on the question, "Should Congress empower Roosevelt to reorganize federal agencies?"

### A UNIT IN PROBLEM SOLVING

In *The Clearing House* for September 1937 Thomas C. Barham Jr. presents "A Social Studies Unit That Developed Pupils' Powers of Problem Solving." Mr. Barham gives a concrete description of the way the minimum-wage problem was handled in a Massachusetts high school and sets forth the teaching purposes and learning outcomes. This practical attack on a practical problem is highly suggestive.

In the same issue of *The Clearing House* is a study of "The Bias of Our Civics Textbooks" made by Mr. Jesse J. Pugh, which gives his standards for judging such books and the conclusions he reached. Several standard textbooks are named in his study.

### MEETINGS

The National Council for the Social Studies held its seventeenth annual meeting on Friday and Saturday after Thanksgiving Day, in St. Louis. Its diversified program revealed the problems uppermost in the minds of teachers of the social studies. Nearly a score of subjects were considered, of which these may be named as showing the scope of the conference: Social Trends and Educational Problems, Utilizing Community Resources in Teaching the Social Studies, The Newspaper in Public Affairs, The Social Studies in the Eight-Year Study of the Progressive Education Association, Social Studies Units

in the Eleventh and Twelfth Grades, Improving the Training of Social Studies Teachers, and Principles or Criteria for Organizing Content for the Social Studies.

The Second National Conference on Educational Broadcasting was held in Chicago on November 29, 30, and December 1. The conference, which was open to the public, studied the problems, progress, and possibilities of educational broadcasting.

### FILMS

Under the chairmanship of Dr. Mark A. May of Yale University a committee is at work reviewing 15,000 sound film short subjects for possible instructional use in schools.

*Found in a Book* is a two-reel silent film distributed by the Bell and Howell Company of Chicago. It dramatizes for pupils the use of library tools, such as card indexes and reference books, showing how helpful the library is for gathering material on a subject. This film originally was produced at the Library School of the University of Illinois.

*America's Safety City* is a two-reel sound film designed to teach children how to behave properly in traffic. It was made from pictures taken by the police of Evanston, Illinois, and shows children encountering the hazards of traffic and the mistakes they made. The film is distributed by the Bureau of Accident Prevention of Evanston.

## Book Reviews and Book Notes

### GENERAL

*William G. Brownlow. Fighting Parson of the Southern Highlands.* By E. Merton Coulter. Chapel Hill, N.C.: The University of North Carolina Press, 1937. Pp. vii, 432. \$3.50.

Not only was Parson William G. Brownlow, the subject of this interesting and illuminating biography, one of the most fascinating figures in American history, but he lived in a period crowded to overflowing with stirring events of national significance. Born in 1805 in eastern Tennessee, where he spent his early life under typical pioneer conditions, he found his later years inevitably associated with the horrors of the War Between the States and the ordeal of reconstruction. Although he began his career as a backwoods Methodist circuit rider, he soon broadened his labors into other fields, in each of which he attained more than local prominence. Among these were writing, editing a newspaper, and politics. His

work as a minister was characterized by a sensational campaign for the Lord and an equally vigorous assault on his chief rivals in the business of conquering sinners, the Baptists and the Presbyterians, who shared about equally his choice invectives. As a newspaper editor and an author of several books as well as many pamphlets, he was distinguished for intolerance, personal abuse, and vituperation. Indeed, he exemplified his motto of many years, "Independent in all things—Neutral in Nothing," in his literary work, as well as in religion and politics. An ardent lover of the Union, he condemned alike abolitionists and the advocates of secession, and at the same time he stoutly defended slavery. When the Southerners broke with the Union, Brownlow refused to follow them and began so bitter a campaign against the Confederacy that he was banished to the North. There he toured the country lecturing on the sinfulness of secession and the cruelty of the seceders in dealing with Union

sympathizers. So striking was his maner of speech and so impassioned were his utterances that he attracted enormous audiences to his lectures. For some of these he was paid \$1,000 each, and one of his books attained a sale of 100,000 copies. His influence in bolstering up the morale of the Northern people can scarcely be overemphasized. After the conquest of Tennessee by the Union armies, Brownlow returned to his native home to resume his journalistic career. As governor of the state for four years during the frightful days of radical reconstruction, he identified his interests with those of Thaddeus Stevens, Charles Sumner, and the most extreme leaders in Congress. Following his retirement from the governorship in 1869 he served six years in the United States Senate.

In the portrayal of the life of this dynamic personality Dr. Coulter has displayed excellent scholarship and a charm of style altogether to rare among the writers of history. He has succeeded remarkably well in integrating the life of Parson Brownlow with the frontier, the religion, and the politics of the period. Thus he has produced a volume of general as well as purely historical interest.

ASA E. MARTIN

Pennsylvania State College  
State College, Pennsylvania

*Claude Kitchin and the Wilson War Policies.* By Alex Mathews Arnett. Boston: Little, Brown, and Company, 1937. Pp. xii, 341. \$3.00.

Dr. Arnett's biography of Claude Kitchin is a striking exception to the general rule that biographies of half-forgotten members of Congress are of little interest except to specialists in colleges.

Claude Kitchin was majority leader in the House of Representatives during the Wilson administration. Until his election to this position in Februray 1915, he had been a loyal and sincere supporter of Wilson's policies, but from this time on he found himself in the difficult position of resisting the will of the President on issues of major importance. Social legislation was now subordinated to foreign policy, and Kitchin was one of the diminishing group who opposed every step that tended toward American intervention in the war. He opposed the policy of favoritism toward the allies; he opposed the vast increases in military expenditures in 1916; he opposed, and both spoke and voted against the declaration of war; he opposed, not without success, the attempts to free wealthy corporations and individuals from the burden of taxation to pay for the war. Although faced with the ruin of his political career, he adhered to his principles firmly, calmly, and fearlessly. He was rewarded with the love and respect of those who knew him, and obloquy and defamation at the hands of the press. He died in 1923, while his opponents were

in power, and failed to win the vindication that has befallen those of his thinking who have lived to see their prophecies fulfilled. Dr. Arnett has given him that vindication in this excellent book.

This volume is recommended to social studies teachers in secondary schools. It is scholarly, but entirely readable. It contains a minimum of insignificant detail, and portrays its hero in his relation to a few major issues of perennial importance. Teachers of units of war, propaganda, the press, and taxation will find chapters that their pupils can read with profit. The book as a whole is a penetrating study of the forces that led America in to the World War. Above all, students may learn from a reading of this book both of the calumny and misrepresentation that await a man who resists interests and passions that are momentarily dominant, and of the power that comes to a man of principle and honor to bear himself with fortitude and integrity in such adversity.

H. J. ABRAHAM

Ohio State University  
Columbus, Ohio

*Anthropology: An Introduction to Primitive Culture.*  
By Alexander Goldenweiser. New York: F. S. Crofts and Company, 1937. Pp. xxii, 550. Illustrated. \$3.75.

*The Study of Man: An Introduction.* By Ralph Linton. New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1936. Pp. ix, 503. \$3.00.

Here are two books of timely interest and importance to all social scientists. Of particular appeal to anthropologists in material and scope of treatment, the fundamental theses and conclusions nevertheless are of vital and intimate concern to historians, political scientists, economists, sociologists and all others concerned with human institutions and questions of their development, change and integration.

Although the aims of both authors are the same, viz., the understanding of culture, what it is, why it is, its importance as a motivating factor in human behavior and the effects of human behavior upon it, as well as the psychological, historical and geographical environmental forces responsible for the present cultural similarities and differences throughout the literate and preliterate world, their approaches and manner of treatment are quite different.

Dr. Goldenweiser presents the case method of study by drawing on the rich sources which ethnography affords. Short accounts are given of numerous non-European cultures selected to illustrate specific points of interest, with particular emphasis upon the Eskimo, Northwest Coast tribes and Iroquois in the New World, the African Baganda and the aborigines of Central Australia.

The volume is divided into three parts. The first, which treats the question of race and intelligence, is the shortest and the only one which leaves much to be desired by fuller treatment, an excusable fault when one takes into consideration that the author is concerned primarily with cultural problems and only incidentally with those of race. Part II contains the descriptive material. Divided into four sections, 100 pages are devoted to Economic Life, Invention, Property; 47 pages to Art; 88 pages to Magic, Religion and Ritual; and 143 pages to Social and Political Institutions. Part III, entitled "The Ways of Culture," contains an excellent summary discussion of the various theoretical considerations introduced and illustrated by the descriptive material.

Dr. Linton, on the other hand, approaches the problems of culture from a more general point of view, applies his discussion in a universal vein, but illustrates his points by well chosen examples taken principally from the Comanche Indians, the Polynesian Marquesans and the tribes of Madagascar, with all of whom he is personally well acquainted by field studies, and from modern civilization. With introductory chapters on Human Origins, Race and Mentality to establish a natural basis for human societal structure, the author discusses various classes of social units and their relationships resulting from innate tendencies, and their arrangement into specific

types of social and political systems by the workings of historical forces. The chapters on Discovery and Invention, Diffusion, Integration, Function, Interests, and Culture and Personality, are particularly stimulating and reveal a keen insight into problems of research in fields still unexplored.

The basic theoretical position of both authors is identical and reflects the contemporary attitude of American anthropologists in general who insist that culture in its entirety can be explained only as the result of the interaction of psychological incentives (regarded as the sole cause for cultural similarities by the old and now almost defunct social evolutionary school), historical influences (considered the only explanation for the appearances of similarities and even of distant resemblances by the extreme diffusionists) and geographical environmental factors (magnified far beyond their actual importance by certain writers in the United States, but recognized by anthropologists as principally of limiting rather than of motivating significance). The various world-wide schemes of culture origins introduced and maintained in the past are no longer tenable in the light of modern knowledge. Both authors blast away old conceptions by introducing new comprehensions of culture concerning which we are going to hear more in the near future from several writers. Both authors adequately demonstrate the increasing difficulties with

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which we are faced in our attempts to understand human beings and their ways of life. Both point out the great need for new techniques and methods of treatment and interpretation of the already great and rapidly growing corpus of evidence which anthropology affords. However, they also reveal the great advances which have been made in anthropological research during the last decade. Members of other disciplines who have not kept pace with recent developments in anthropological thought in America will find these two volumes not only of pertinent general value, but will discover in their contents cause for retrospection into their own spheres of interest. Both volumes contain selective bibliographies.

D. S. DAVIDSON

University of Pennsylvania  
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

*Essays in Political Science. In Honor of Westel Woodbury Willoughby, Professor Emeritus of Political Science, The Johns Hopkins University. Edited by John Mabry Mathews and James Hart. Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins Press, 1937. Pp. viii, 364. \$3.00.*

In this volume are contained several substantive essays in the fields of public administration, political theory, the scientific method in politics and law, constitutional and administrative law, and international law, written mainly by students of Dr. W. W. Willoughby, for many years the distinguished professor of political science in The Johns Hopkins University. An introductory chapter, contributed by Professor James W. Garner of the University of Illinois, evaluates the life-work of Professor Willoughby, and in so doing sketches most interestingly the development of political science in the United States. Few men have contributed more to the up-building of a relatively new division of knowledge. Among Professor Willoughby's published writings are to be noted: *The Nature of the State* (1896); *Social Justice* (1900); *The Political Theories of the Ancient World* (1903); *The American Constitutional System . . .* (1904); *The Constitutional Law of the United States* (1910); *Prussian Political Philosophy* (1918); *The Fundamental Concepts of Public Law* (1924); *The Ethical Basis of Political Authority* (1930).

In 1916, Professor Willoughby was made Constitutional Advisor to the President of the Chinese Republic, and in 1921-22 he was technical expert to the Chinese delegation at the Washington Conference of that winter. This new interest resulted in an important volume, *Foreign Rights and Interests in China* (1920), followed in 1922 with *China at the Conference*. Technical expert to the Chinese delegation at the Geneva Conference on Traffic in Opium in 1924-25, Dr. Willoughby published in the latter year *Opium as an International Problem*. Again, in

1931, he served as Advisor Expert to the Chinese delegation to the Assembly of the League of Nations and to Dr. Sze, China's representative on the Council of the League. His latest work is *The Sino-Japanese Controversy and the League of Nations* (1935).

When to this statement of his work as a publicist and of his active participation in world affairs as the friend of China it is added that Professor Willoughby was the chief organizer of the American Political Science Association, and the first editor of the *American Political Science Review*, the reasonableness of a tribute to the useful life of a great scholar is apparent. The Essays which make up this volume are worthy of their intention. The book is not well-fitted for a work of reference for high schools; but it should be a source of inspiration to teachers.

ST. GEORGE L. SIOUSSAT

University of Pennsylvania  
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

*Comparative Major European Governments.* By John Gilbert Heinberg. New York: Farrar & Rinehart, Inc., 1937. Pp. xvii, 537. \$3.00.

In the author's own words, this volume is designed primarily as "an introductory treatise for students and general readers," and the attempt is made to present a balanced and systematic account of the major European governments. Mr. Heinberg, himself a professor of political science at the University of Missouri, has kept the needs of the student uppermost in his mind in designing his volume, in so far as it is possible, along the lines of a "functional" approach.

Perhaps the most notable contribution of the author, in line with the functional approach, is his treatment of the governments of England, France, Germany, Italy and Russia, with respect to function rather than the usual time-worn approach from mere structure. It might be said with justice, I believe, that he is more interested concretely in what these governments do, than in abstractly what they are "designed to do." He further believes firmly that the governmental system of no one of these nations can adequately be viewed in isolation from the systems of the others, since their individual backgrounds are inextricably interlaced. Too much cannot be said in favor of this sort of comprehensive analytical "overview."

In order best to serve the particular ends which he has in view, Mr. Heinberg has carefully prefaced his contemporary analysis in each case with a more or less thorough historical background. No person can adequately be oriented to the contemporary political usages of a given nation without a knowledge of the soil in which the roots of that system found nourishment. In this case we feel that this historical background has, in some instances, been overdone.

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If this criticism has any justice, we must in fairness admit that the error is on the side of overthoroughness rather than otherwise. However, the present-day unique political institutions of each of these nations has not suffered by virtue of such close attention to their backgrounds; as the author, always in deference to the concrete, has carefully analyzed present-day elections, administration, legislation and adjudication as well as background.

The reader, we feel, cannot help but agree with the author that government in our day far overreaches the scope of a merely complicated mechanism, that it is a very real, pervading influence in the lives of even the most individualistic of its citizens. In the cases of such countries as Italy, Germany and Russia, this influence is, of course, much more obvious than in the cases of the less closely controlled governments of England and France. Mr. Heinberg has, we believe, succeeded in focussing our attention on these influences even in the cases of the more democratic nations; an accomplishment which, in fairness to all concerned, is noteworthy.

If we attempt to evaluate the work in the light of what the author explicitly outlines as his objectives, we must say that, by and large, this volume should fill very adequately the need for which it was created. We recommend it highly for the use of all persons who may wish to keep abreast of the real forces in the governmental structure of present-day Europe.

RICHARD ATHERTON HUMPHREY

St. Paul's School  
Garden City, New York

*Washington, City and Capital.* By the Works Progress Administration, Federal Writers' Project. Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1937. Pp. xxvi, 1140. Illustrated. \$3.00.

An early number of the American Guide Series being prepared by the Federal Writers' Project, this volume is a very worthy prototype of the regional, state and local guides which are to be published. According to their plan, the editors have presented a guidebook which is more inclusive than the conventional type.

The various materials brought together in this work are arranged according to a well organized scheme. Within the introductory portion are sections on General Information and a Calendar of Annual Events. Part I. The General Background treats a variety of subjects, including the history of Washington, its physical conditions, architecture, art, music, literature, journalism, science and religion. Part II. Washington of Today contains descriptions of the important buildings and institutions both public and private. Part III. Tours in the City and Environs is of particular interest to the automobilist and the hiker. Part IV. The Executive Departments of the Federal Gov-

ernment presents data of an historical and descriptive nature relating to the departments arranged according to the order of their establishment. Part V. Independent Agencies of the Federal Government describes the numerous commissions, administrations, boards, etc., that have become increasingly prominent in the activities of the government. Part VI. District of Columbia Agencies concerns the non-federal governmental organizations. The appendices include a list of statues, monuments and memorials; a chronology; and a bibliography. The index seems short for so large a volume. Numerous maps, plans and illustrations scattered throughout the work add greatly to its utility and interest.

The editors have succeeded in their attempt to present an intelligibly written book, but it is one that will be chiefly used for reference purposes. Although not free from errors, it is by far the best guidebook that has appeared on the national capital.

HENRY P. BEERS

Washington, D.C.

*The Sharecropper.* By Charlie May Simon, New York: E. P. Dutton and Company, 1937. Pp. 247. \$2.50.

Life, as it has come to the typical white sharecropper family of eastern Arkansas, is realistically portrayed in *The Sharecropper*.

The story begins with a marriage. In a bleak cotton cabin, young Bill Bradley dons his new overalls and denim jacket while down the turn-row, in another cabin not quite so bleak, Donie Goodwin puts her few things in a shiny, fragile trunk. In a wagon borrowed for the occasion, they ride to the county courthouse. Bill and Donie, standing awkward and proud before the justice of peace, are more conscious of the snickering bystanders gathered in the doorway than of the mumbled words which are making them man and wife.

The couple spend their first year in an overcrowded cabin with Bill's family. Though accustomed to a better table than corn meal and sorghum syrup, Donie never complains, for her place is with Bill. The drabness of life is frequently broken by her references to the time when she and Bill will buy a mule, rent a farm, and at length become landowners.

Work as they may, life becomes more stark. Bill's father, who had lost a farm to exacting creditors when a young man, dies of malaria between the clean white sheets of a Red Cross rescue camp during the flood. His thirteen-year-old sister, who has no "pretty clothes" for church and no book for school except the family Bible, slips off to Memphis and to prostitution. His mother's mind breaks under the weight of hard experience and a pellagrous diet. At the State Asylum she points with pride to the picture on the wall, to the dresser with a swinging mirror, to

her own brush and comb, and to the window box of geraniums—flowers she had always "aimed to raise."

The years bring more debts and needs to Bill and Donie. One, two, three children are born. In spite of their hard work and hope for ownership, the commissary account regularly consumes the profit at the end of the year. There is no money for a mule, no money for a doctor. Midwives are within walking distance and cheap.

While looking for work during the slack-work season one summer, Bill meets the lawyer who had patrolled the levee with him during the flood. He is now sponsoring the organization of a tenant farmers union. Bill feels that the New Deal did not help the sharecroppers. The union sounds like a good idea. He joins and takes an active part in promoting it.

Presently he and his family are evicted from the plantation on threat of death. Then he is arrested for vagrancy and sentenced to cotton chopping. Through with the enforced labor, he can find no farm—the plantation owners having agreed to use no family thrown off another plantation for union activities. After having lived by the roadside for days, the Bradleys find shelter in an abandoned church with an aged Negro couple similarly evicted. Within the week vigilantes wait upon them with leather straps—Negroes and whites must not live together, and it is going to be stopped even if it takes horse whipping for a white man and death for a black man. The Bradleys move on and are joined by the aged Negro woman when she gives up the search for her husband. She lives with the Bradleys as "nurse"—plantation owners have nurses.

Unable to find a farm, Bill and Donie start life over in a hastily constructed cabin by a swamp on an abandoned plantation. With a past heavy with debts, floods, and failure, they come to middle life still loving the land, still hoping to buy a mule, still wanting to own a farm.

The life story of these sharecroppers strikingly parallels that of many landless families today. It should be pointed out, however, that all of them have not retained the "wish" for, to say nothing of the hope of, achieving ownership. This point, of course, is not overlooked by the author.

A few years ago scores of sharecroppers in eastern Arkansas were evicted, without food and clothing, from the land they worked. These evictions occurred because of the organization of the Southern Tenant Farmers Union. Much publicity was given the federal prosecutions of some of those who resorted to violence in their efforts to break up the Union. One has the feeling that if the story had gone a little further, it would have mentioned the Delta Coöperative Farm near Clarksdale, Mississippi, where nearly two scores of the evicted tenant families, white and Ne-

gro, are now making progress toward economic independence and cultural self-direction.

Mrs. Simon's *The Sharecropper*, except in minor unrealistic instances, is convincing and will serve to dramatize the more intimate and subtle influences of the cotton plantation upon its workers, the hope and disappointments which the New Deal brought the landless families, the conditions under which the tenant farmers union emerged in eastern Arkansas. This novel underscores the fact that the cotton plantation has been and is essentially feudalistic, even fascistic, in its control of cotton and labor.

ARTHUR RAPER

Atlanta, Georgia

*A History of the Art of War in the Sixteenth Century.*

By Sir Charles Oman. New York: E. P. Dutton and Company, 1937. Pp. xvi, 784. Maps. \$6.00.

The appearance of a sequel to Sir Charles Oman's *History of the Art of War in the Middle Ages* is cause for excitement among those interested in force-technique as a factor conditioning the development of civilization. But that Oman should have confined the sequel to the sixteenth century is cause for nothing less than jubilation. In the history of the art of war the sixteenth century is a period of lush germination out of the rot of medieval civilization. As is most periods of regeneration, the diversity and luxuriance of growth is fearfully confusing, yet the art of war of later times has had the great mass of its roots in this century. Because of the difficulty of comprehending and expounding in any orderly fashion the welter of military events and developments, historians of the art of war have generally skimmed over this period, tracing only the essential connections between the Middle Ages and the beginning of a system of regular armies in the seventeenth century. The result has been gross distortion through attempted simplification and the leaving of a "blind spot" in the history of the art of war.

Oman's synthesis is a full one, revealing all the confused complexity of contemporary realities, yet one so ably executed that even the academically unsophisticated may easily maintain their grasp upon the subject. The author's prodigious learning is so inconspicuous, his literary style so happy, and his text so replete with accounts of remarkable and little-known adventures that the whole is of absorbing interest. The work is a truly great composition in an important field.

The interest of the work is immensely increased by the fact that the sixteenth century, like our own time, found itself bogged down in a period of overwhelming superiority for the defensive in warfare, with somewhat similar consequences for civilization. Permanent fortification, by resort to the bastion and the *glacis*, had checkmated the power of artillery and

made victory in the field fruitless, while increased reliance upon the arquebus in battle made attack so deadly and hazardous and defeat so disastrous that a strategy of the "army-in-being" necessarily replaced the strategy of seeking decision by battle. Hence a ruthless warfare of attrition, the resort to brutal attack upon civilian population, the preponderant importance of economic and moral mobilization, and the growth of autocracy as more or less of a military necessity.

DALLAS D. IRVINE

The National Archives  
Washington, D.C.

#### TEXTBOOKS AND OTHER TEACHING AIDS

*The Conquest of America; A History of American Civilization: Economic and Social.* By Harold Rugg. New York: Ginn and Company, 1937. Pp. 563. Illustrated. \$1.96.

*America's March Toward Democracy; History of American Life: Political and Social.* By Harold Rugg. New York: Ginn and Company, 1937. Pp. 515. Illustrated. \$1.96.

*Changing Governments and Changing Cultures; Democracy Versus Dictatorship: The World Struggle.* By Harold Rugg. New York: Ginn and Company, 1937. Pp. 752. Illustrated. \$2.00.

These are Volumes III, IV, and VI respectively of the Rugg Series entitled *A History of American Civilization*. Volume III, a revision, simplifies the original book and brings the subject matter up-to-date. The material upon which the volume is based comes from the fields of geography, history, economics, civics, and sociology. The purpose is to portray to the youth of junior high school age the many and varied perplexing problems of modern times. As stated in the title it is largely economic and social, stressing the theory of many writers that these factors should replace the importance placed on political history in our earlier textbooks. It is a history of the civilization and cultural development of the United States. The intent of the author is that this volume should be used with Volume IV, which treats the social and political aspects of American life. Volume VI is no doubt an outstanding departure in textbook writing for the junior high schools. Interwoven throughout this volume is the problem of democratic government versus dictatorial government. It is really a treatment of world problems with an essential historical introduction to each. Dictatorships, peace movements, population problems, trade and economic questions, and international coöperation are the leading questions upon which the whole book is based. Motivation in thinking and attitudes accompanying governmental changes are also brought to view. Of

special interest is the space given to the Far East and Mexico.

Each volume is organized upon a unitary basis. There is a "Foreword" for each unit, and summaries for individual chapters. These serve as a review of the chief points for the pupil and introduce him to what is to follow. At the close of each chapter is an interesting bibliography of reading for pupils' use. The practical and simple vocabulary for junior high school students, the dramatization of many events, and the abundance of pictures and illustrations all add to the attractiveness of the work for the student. Essential facts are repeated in a clever way in order to emphasize them in the student's mind. The style of writing is especially outstanding. Surely, it is within the grasp of the pupils for which it is designed.

If social studies teachers are using "fusion" courses, or are considering the experiment it seems that the Rugg series should find an important place in their consideration.

HERMAN H. LAWRENCE

Senior High School  
Middletown, Ohio

*Society in Action.* By Helen Halter. New York: Inor Publishing Company, 1936. Pp. x, 366. Illustrated. \$1.66.

This book is the result of six years of experimentation with the social studies curriculum in the laboratory school of the New York State College for Teachers. It is a guide designed to aid the pupil in investigating problems of living in modern times. Each unit contains an outline statement of a problem, suggested plans of study, questions for class discussion, and well-selected references. Suggestions are also given teachers for carrying out the work of the course in present problems.

A. C. B.

#### BOOK NOTES

A "New Revised Edition"—the fifth—of the excellent little volume which Professor Latourette first published in 1917, has appeared recently: *The Development of China.* By Kenneth Scott Latourette. (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1937. Pp. xii, 334. Price \$3.00) Except for emendations of phrases and dates, the text remains substantially the same as that of the earlier editions until the author reaches the sixth chapter, "The Transformation." When the book was first published, Dr. Latourette's survey came down to about 1915, with the pressure of the European war on China, and the Japanese demands as to Shantung. Now, this chapter has been expanded through the development of the state of Manchoukuo to 1934. The book, of necessity, stops short of the present difficulties in China; but the summary of the

results of the Great War, the Lansing-Ishii Agreement, the Washington Conference of 1921-22 and the Peking Conference of 1926, the influence of Communism, the effects of the further penetration of the industrial revolution in China, the activities of Chian Kai-shek, Sun Yat-sen, and other leaders, and the beginnings of the new aggressiveness of Japan forms a most excellent background preparatory to a study of the events of the last two or three years. The concluding chapter, on "Present-day Problems," has been re-written, and the Index and the Bibliography have been expanded. The only map, duplicated inside the front and back covers, is hardly as satisfactory as the one which illustrated the original edition. Both on the political and cultural side, the little book represents a remarkable accumulation of information clearly presented.

ST. GEORGE L. SIOUSSAT

Mr. Frank Chapin Bray, the veteran editor, has brought together a large number of headlines, phrases, catchwords, and slogans that apply to American history in his recently published *Headlines in American History* (New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1937. Pp. vii, 311. \$2.00). The origin of many terms such as bootlegger, fire-eaters, jingo, technocracy, sit-down strike, and weasel words, as well as the meaning of such phrases as the immortal "Give me liberty or give me death!" and the more recent "To proud to fight," are included in this extensive list. The arrangement is alphabetical and therefore convenient. The book will be of service especially to librarians and teachers.

The author of *The Philosophy of Henry George* has written a new book on the land question: George Raymond Geiger, *The Theory of the Land Question* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1937. Pp. xi, 237. \$2.00). There is presented in the volume a comprehensive definition of land, an exposition of the meaning and peculiarities of land value, a description of the distinction between land and capital, a brief history of the land question, and an essay on land value taxation. The book is written from a theoretical point of view and will appeal to those interested in economic or social philosophy.

*Of the Earth Earthy*, by Marion Nicholl Rawson (New York: E. P. Dutton and Company, 1937. Pp. 414. Illustrated. \$5.00), is a book that treats the industries of the earth during pioneering days along the Eastern seaboard. Glimpses are given of early American industrial life. Lime-kilns, brick yards, quarrying, asheries, saltpetre beds, shipyards, rope-walks, peat bogs and ironworks are a few of the subjects discussed in a delightfully informal manner. The sketches by the author add to the interest and value of the work. This volume is the eighth in Mrs.

Rawson's group on the life and scenes of early America.

#### PERTINENT PAMPHLETS

*American History through Fiction*. By D. S. Otis and Jacques Ozanne. Service Bureau for Adult Education, New York University, 20 Washington Square North, New York. 50 cents.

The first of a new type of pamphlet series issued under the general title "Reading and Study for Pleasure and Profit," intended as a stimulus and guide to persons whose reading hours are limited.

*The Constitution of the United States, Its Origin, Formation and Adoption*. The Historical Society of Pennsylvania, 1300 Locust Street, Philadelphia. 50 cents.

A list of books, pamphlets, and documents from the collections of the Historical Society of Pennsylvania displayed in commemoration of the 150th anniversary of the signing of the Constitution, with a Preface by Julian P. Boyd.

*United States Neutrality Resolutions of 1935, 1936, and 1937*. Compiled by Gilbert A. Cam. New York Public Library, New York.

A selected reading list.

#### New Edition

### Growth of the American People

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"Most important of all is the emphasis on using history as a means of understanding the present. The purpose of the authors is to make students think."—*The Social Studies*

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**LONGMANS, GREEN & CO.**

114 Fifth Avenue 221 East 20 Street 88 Tremont Street  
New York Chicago Boston

*Azilum: The Story of a French Royalist Colony of 1793.* By Elsie Murray. Published by the author, Tioga Point Museum, Athens, Pa. 50 cents.

A history of the settlement of the colony of French émigrés in northern Pennsylvania.

*Peaceful Change—The Alternative to War.* Headline Book No. 12. The Foreign Policy Association, 8 West Fortieth Street, New York. 35 cents.

The claims of the so-called "have not" nations are analyzed, proposed solutions for international economic problems are surveyed, steps are suggested whereby the economic causes of war may be removed, and a program of economic coöperation for the United States is presented.

*Doctoral Dissertations Accepted by American Universities, 1936-37.* H. W. Wilson Company, 950 University Avenue, New York. \$2.00.

The fourth annual list of doctoral dissertations compiled for The Association of Research Libraries.

*Guide to the Official Publications of the New Deal Administration.* Compiled by J. K. Wilcox. The American Library Association, Chicago. \$1.75.

A second supplement, listing publications from December, 1935 to January 1, 1937.

*Boy Dates Girl.* By Gay Head. Scholastic Publications, 402 Chamber of Commerce Building, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania. 35 cents.

A collection of deftly written essays which have appeared during the last school year in *Scholastic* magazine. An interesting and instructive presentation of social situations and personal problems which high school pupils encounter.

*Child Labor and the Nation's Health.* By S. Adolphus Knopf. Boston: The Christopher Publishing House. 50 cents.

The relation of child labor to tuberculosis and other diseases.

#### CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

*High School Teachers Methods.* By Charles E. Holley. Champaign, Illinois: The Garrard Press, 1937. Pp. vii, 514. \$3.00.

A study of classroom methods used by high school teachers.

*Principles of Economics.* By Frederic B. Garver and Alvin H. Hansen. Boston: Ginn and Company, 1937. Revised edition. Pp. x, 686. \$4.00.

A textbook intended for beginning students of economics at the college level.

*The United States in the Making.* By Leon H. Canfield, Howard B. Wilder and Frederic L. Paxson, Ellis M. Coulter, Nelson P. Mead. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1937. Pp. vii, 842, xxvii. Illustrated. \$2.20.

A new American history text for the senior high school.

*Realities of American Government.* By Neal Doyle Houghton. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1937. Pp. xx, 789. Illustrated. \$1.80.

A new textbook which gives a realistic treatment of our governmental system, its methods and problems.

*Our Racial and National Minorities: their History, Contributions, and Present Problems.* Edited by Francis J. Brown and Joseph S. Roucek. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc. 1937. Pp. xx, 874. \$5.00.

A comprehensive study of American minority groups by a number of eminent authorities.

*History of Brooklyn Jewry.* By Samuel P. Abelow. Brooklyn, N.Y.: Scheba Publishing Company, 1937. Pp. 344.

A study of the cultural development and contributions of the Brooklyn Jewry.

*American Agricultural Problems in the Social Studies.* By Kenneth E. Oberholtzer. Teachers College Contributions to Education No. 718. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1937. Pp. v, 119. \$1.60.

Some important agricultural problems and related generalizations that should be considered in the general curriculum of urban and rural schools.

*Marc Antony: His World and His Contemporaries.* By Jack Lindsay. New York: E. P. Dutton and Company, 1937. Pp. xii, 329. Illustrated. \$3.75.

A description of the social struggles in which Marc Antony was so important an actor, and a dialectical analysis of this period of history.

*Sources of English Constitutional History.* Edited and translated by Carl Stephenson and Frederick G. Marcham. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1937. Pp. xxxii, 906. \$4.00.

A selection of documents from 600 A.D. to the present.

*If War Comes.* By R. Ernest Dupuy and George F. Eliot. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1937. Pp. xi, 368. \$3.00.

An attempt to examine and coordinate the lessons to be learned from recent campaigns, and from the progress of military art and scientific research.

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